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MONTHLY

LABOR REVIEW

SEPTEMBER, 1938 VOL. 47, NO. 3

HUGH S. HANNA, *Editor*

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR SEPTEMBER 1938

ADEQUACY OF BENEFIT PAYMENTS UNDER WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

By MARSHALL DAWSON, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

Summary

DURING the past 25 years the main effort of labor in the field of workmen's compensation legislation has been to obtain increased benefits. Little attention has been paid to the basis upon which expert and stable administration could be inaugurated, as having an important bearing upon what the worker actually receives. But especially during the years 1930–35, when wages were low and employment irregular, it became apparent that the worker was vitally interested not only in the percentage of wages allowed as compensation by the law but in the way compensation and insurance officers calculated the wage base, and in the supervision provided to make certain that the worker actually received the payments to which he was entitled under the law. Where the calculation made use of a part-time wage as the basis of compensation, the injured worker sometimes received only a few cents a week, while on the other hand, under methods giving a full-time wage base, the worker might receive $15 or more a week. The 1929 depression brought this situation into the foreground, and in consequence changes in the law, in administrative methods, or in both, have occurred in some jurisdictions.

Since the original compensation acts were passed, the legal basis for the payment of compensation has been broadened, and the benefit scales have been lifted to higher levels. In several jurisdictions lifetime benefits are now paid for permanent disabilities, at a rate of not less than 66⅔ percent of wage loss or impairment of earning capacity. But some other jurisdictions pay only 50 percent of wages, during a brief period, for the same type of injuries. This difference illustrates the great diversity of benefit provisions found in the States and also in the Canadian Provinces. The low benefits paid in some areas are a brake upon further development in the jurisdictions where compensation laws are more advanced.

The "ceiling" and the "floor" of compensation benefits are still the subject of experimentation, with readjustments continually taking place, usually higher, but occasionally lower, especially as to

the recent provision of compensation for disabilities caused by the dust diseases and silicosis in particular. Occasional reactions from relatively high benefit scales indicate that if permanently higher benefits are to be gained on a Nation-wide scope, improvements in administration, especially as to accident prevention, are indispensable. Moreover, better cooperation with the administration of the act as a whole, on the part of employers, workers, and doctors, is essential to the permanent success of the movement toward fully adequate benefits.

Experimental Origin and Development of the Benefit System

The benefit scale has been called the heart of the compensation system. Upon its adequacy rests the injured worker's chance for decent maintenance during helplessness and the protection of his dependent family from destitution or a lowered living standard.

The benefit provisions of the early compensation laws were experimental. They were made in the face of predictions that the cost of the new system of caring for injured workers would be overwhelming. Although the advocates of compensation statutes were convinced that the estimates of cost announced by opponents of workmen's compensation were much exaggerated, such statements had influence with legislatures. In consequence, the early benefit scales were not only low but the laws were sometimes without such features as medical aid, considered indispensable in the present statutes.

The low scale of benefits and the technical devices for reducing cost resulted from compromise between conflicting interests rather than from the application of rational principles to the benefit provisions. Subsequent changes have come in part through a comprehensive and intelligent development of the system and in part through alteration of one item or another regardless of its relation to the statute as a whole.

In the present examination of the benefit systems, attention is given to features that have caused particular hardship to workers or their dependents. The details of the provisions for payment are bewildering unless they are seen in relation to the main lines of growth in the compensation systems. Although excessive variations in the benefit provisions still persist, the practices relating to payment have in some jurisdictions been broadened.

The situation of the injured worker under the compensation statutes is beyond question much better than it was under the common law and the employers' liability acts, but in many cases the benefits obtainable have been too low for subsistence, and the injured worker has at times become dependent upon private charity or public relief. The incalculable aid furnished by the compensation system cannot hide the fact that in a number of States many injured workers would

starve, if society left them to depend entirely upon the compensation they receive. The insufficient attention given to this situation may arise from the defenseless condition of the lowest-paid or intermittently employed workers, who have in some instances received as compensation less than a dollar a week. How this could happen, even under a seemingly liberal compensation act, is shown herein by explanations and illustrations of principles and practices relating to payments.

Factors Determining the Compensation Actually Received

VARYING APPLICATIONS OF THE WAGE BASE FOR PAYMENT

In many jurisdictions the experience of injured workers, especially during periods of part-time or intermittent employment, has compelled restudy of the wage base for the computing of compensation payments. In jurisdictions which have not adopted a full-time wage base, this feature in arriving at the amount of payment has been the chief cause of complaint from workers in recent years.

Except in a few jurisdictions which pay fixed sums or pensions, the scale of compensation is based upon a percentage of the worker's earnings. Insurance premiums also are based on wages. In most jurisdictions the first step in determining the amount of compensation is to find out what wages the worker received. At this point confused and varied practices are found. In the first place, the amount paid the worker may not be correctly reported, and the administrations are faced with the problem of devising and enforcing satisfactory reporting by those obligated to furnish information. The next step is to determine, under the provisions of the law, whether compensation is to be calculated upon full-time or part-time wages, normal or abnormal. It is apparent that if compensation is based upon part-time earnings, especially if wages are low, the compensation received by some workers will be insufficient for their subsistence. Workers have challenged such an application of the compensation-insurance principle. Administrators have been divided in their attitude. Arguments for and against the use of a part-time wage base for compensation payments were given at the 1932 meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, an organization of compensation officers of the United States and Canada.[1] On the one hand, it was asserted that insurance carriers could not maintain satisfactory reserves for payment of compensation over long periods, if payments to injured workers were based upon full-time employment while the carriers collected premiums on pay rolls based on part-time employment. On the other hand, it was maintained that the cost to the insurer should be rated according

[1] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 577, pp. 61–85: Ascertainment of Average Weekly Wage, by Walter O. Stack; and discussion following.

to the amount of exposure to the hazard of injury, and that the part-time worker is an insurance risk only during the time he works. Under this interpretation, the worker would be entitled to compensation upon a full-time wage base even if he had been employed for but a few hours before his injury.

Distress resulting from the use of the part-time wage base, especially during the period 1930–35 when wages were low and employment was intermittent, led in some jurisdictions to radical changes in the administrative practice, in the law, or in its interpretation by the courts. Outstanding instances of reversals by administrations or courts of the prevailing rule of interpretation, by setting up full-time instead of actual wages as the base for computing compensation, occurred in Minnesota and Pennsylvania.

In a Pennsylvania case 57 cents per week had been awarded as compensation to a totally disabled skilled worker. Under a changed interpretation of the wage base, this worker was paid $15 a week.[2]

In 1937 an amended Pennsylvania act (sec. 306a) put a substantial floor under compensation awards in total disability cases, by the provision of an absolute minimum [3] of $12 a week regardless of the wages earned. In a number of Canadian Provinces the emergency was met by the exercise of administrative discretion, and the workmen's compensation boards fixed a "subsistence" minimum below which payments might not fall.

The Third National Conference on Labor Legislation (1936) recommended, as the wage base for computing compensation, a normal full-time week. With such a provision in the compensation statute, reinforced by the fixing of a "subsistence level" below which payments may not fall, it would appear that a percentage-of-wage basis for compensation is preferable to the designation of fixed sums, as in the Washington and Wyoming acts—a method too inflexible to reflect changes in wage scales and living costs.

In addition to the wage base used and the percent of the wage that is allowed, the usual factors determining the amount of compensation are the limitations upon weekly and total payments and the periods during which payments are made. Such limits vary widely in the jurisdictions. At one point or another the limits upon the amount of compensation are changed at almost every session of the legislatures. The exact situation as to benefits in the States, as of any given year, is shown by periodic or occasional publications of the United States

[2] U. S. Division of Labor Standards Bulletin No. 2: Proceedings of the 1934 meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, p. 193.

[3] In most jurisdictions the minimum is not absolute, but is qualified by the clause "unless the wages are less," in which case compensation would be the full amount of wages. As interpreted, such a provision sometimes yielded only nominal compensation to intermittently employed workers.

Bureau of Labor Statistics.[4] Information regarding the scale of compensation in the Provinces of Canada has been published annually in a mimeographed pamphlet by the Department of Labor, Ottawa. A current analysis of workmen's compensation in the United States is found on pages 566 to 587 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review, to which reference is made for tabulations of benefit provisions.

BROADENING APPLICATION OF THE BENEFIT SYSTEM

Marked differences are observed not only in the determination of the wages upon which payments are computed, but also in the scope and application of the benefit schemes. In a comparison of the compensation acts in 1920, Carl Hookstadt said:

> The necessity for a workable law, not excessively burdensome to the employer and not conducive to malingering, while affording such reasonable benefits to the injured workman as to prevent hardship to himself and family, has led to a wide variety of attempts to determine the proper amount to be awarded. * * *
>
> No 2 of the 45 States have identical compensation provisions, and few States seem to have followed any definite theory in this respect. Nevertheless, two factors have operated in determining the amount of compensation provided in the various State laws: (1) Loss of earning capacity, and (2) social need. (U. S Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 275, pp. 59, 60.)

To the two factors observed in 1920 others have been added in the subsequent development of compensation laws. Hookstadt maintained that in estimating the loss suffered by an injured worker, he should be looked upon as a human being subject to impaired enjoyment of life as well as loss of earning power. For example, a worker who has lost an arm or suffered a serious disfigurement is not restored to the same status he was in before the accident, even if he is reemployed at the same wage as before. For the rest of his life he suffers inconvenience or humiliation because of the lack of an arm or his bad appearance. To a limited extent this is recognized in some of the acts. In case of disfigurement, for example, in several jurisdictions the worker is now given additional compensation for what the courts have referred to as impairment of life, over and above what is paid for wage loss. Another development found in some States is the use of increased or decreased payments to penalize unsafe practices on the part of the employer or the injured worker. In a few States additional payments are made for the maintenance of workers undergoing rehabilitation.

In the administration of the benefit provisions, increasing emphasis has been placed upon the bodily or the economic restoration of injured workers, and such a consideration in many instances now affects

[4] A biennial analysis is given in the Handbook of Labor Statistics, the 1936 edition of which is Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 616. Reprints of the information on Workmen's Compensation are available in pamphlet form. Analyses of legislative changes in benefits also appear in the Monthly Labor Review from time to time.

either the form or the amount of payment. In short, in the jurisdictions where the greatest development is found, the benefit systems are used in part to reinforce accident prevention, rehabilitation, and the laws safeguarding the employment of minors. In such developments what may be termed the "humanizing" of workmen's compensation is seen.

OPERATION OF FACTORS DETERMINING PAYMENT, AS OBSERVED IN THE PROVISION FOR DISFIGUREMENT

Although payment for disfigurements is a minor feature of the benefit systems, analysis of the laws and experience at this point provides a good approach for observing both the variety and the development of the compensation provisions. There is extreme variation in the maximum amount of compensation allowed for disfigurements, but no general comparison can be made because the principle underlying the payment in one jurisdiction may be different from that in another. Examples are:

Colorado: Amount not to exceed $500 "in addition to all other compensation benefits."

Oklahoma: "Not in excess of $3,000 * * * not in addition to the other compensation provided for."

Texas: For "any disfigurement which will impair the future usefulness or occupational opportunities of the injured employee, compensation shall be determined according to the percentage of incapacity, taking into account among other things * * * the nature of the disfigurement, the occupation of the injured employee, and the age at the time of injury * * *. Not to exceed $20 a week, multiplied by the percentage of incapacity caused by the injury for such period not exceeding 300 weeks."

New Brunswick: The amount allowed for disfigurement is entirely within the discretion of the compensation board, "proportioned upon the diminution of earning capacity and the degree of disfigurement, but not exceeding in any case $2,500."

Change in legal theory underlying the payment.—There is variation not only in the amount of compensation for disfigurements but also in the type of injury for which compensation is allowed. Usually, only injuries to the face or head are listed as compensable; sometimes injuries to the neck or hands are included. For example, in South Carolina bodily disfigurement is included; in New York, "serious facial or head disfigurement" is compensated, and also some neck injuries.[5] In New York the payment for disfigurement of face or head may be awarded in addition to compensation for disability or

[5] Part of the New York provision is framed in words too difficult for the average reader to understand. Compensation for neck disfigurement is limited to "any serious disfigurement in the region above the sterno clavicular articulations anterior to and including the region of the sterno cleido mastoid muscles on either side" (New York Workmen's Compensation Law, sec. 15, subd. 3, par. t).

loss of earnings, but in case of the other disfigurements mentioned payment is made only if "the earning capacity of employee has been or may in the future be impaired."

In court decisions upon compensation awarded in New York for disfigurements, where the payment had no relation to earning capacity, the broadening of the basis of compensation to include "any substantial physical impairment attributable to the injury, whether it immediately affects earning capacity or not," was held to be constitutional.[6]

This transition from the narrow legal basis of early legislation to the broad principle found in some of the later amendments is of vital importance in the development of workmen's compensation and has had marked effects upon the administrative attitude. In the hands of an alert administrator, benefit payments based upon "any substantial impairment" are a means of obtaining the kind of medical care of the injured worker that restores, as completely as possible, both function and appearance.

Varying applications of the benefit provision.—The experience of disfigured workers in jurisdictions where no payment is made for such an injury unless it results in wage loss is somewhat as follows:

A coal miner whose face is shattered receives no compensation except for temporary disability, but an actor suffering such an injury might be paid for permanent total disability if his unsightly appearance kept him from finding another job. But if, by good fortune, the actor found other employment paying him the same wages he had earned before the injury, he might thereafter either receive no compensation, or payment based upon an estimate of probable future wage loss, according to differences of interpretation in the jurisdictions. Under this theory the worker is looked upon, for compensation purposes, as a robot or animated machine in need of repair for continued work instead of a human being subject to serious impairments other than those registered in wage loss. In some cases the medical care of the injury might end with restoring function, without regard to the worker's appearance, and the compensation commission would lack power to demand more complete surgical attention.

The experience of a disfigured worker under the more advanced legislation, in the course of an informal hearing conducted at San Francisco in 1935 by Warren H. Pillsbury, Deputy Commissioner, United States Employees' Compensation Commission, may serve as a

[6] See especially *N. Y. Central Railroad Co.* v. *Bianc* (250 U. S. 596). The appellant argued that "it is of no public concern whether the claimant shall or shall not receive a further award for impairment of good looks not in any wise related to earning power" and that "only impairment of earning power justifies compulsory payment of workmen's compensation for disability or fatal injuries inflicted without fault." In support of the earlier narrow construction of workmen's compensation, *Ball* v. *William Hunt & Sons, Ltd.* (1912), App. Cas. 496, was cited: "The theory and datum upon which such compensation proceeds is that of compensation for injury to the worker as a wage earner."

vital cross section showing problems encountered in the application of benefit provisions.

At the time a longshoreman was injured a jar of acid broke and some of it splashed on his face. The insurance company paid the worker compensation for temporary disability, and he signed a final settlement receipt. The deputy commissioner, in checking upon the settlement, inferred from the report of the accident that a facial disfigurement might have occurred, for which the worker would be entitled to additional compensation under the Longshoremen's Act. He communicated with the worker, who said that his face was scarred. An informal hearing was then arranged, at which the worker and the insurance adjuster appeared. The deputy commissioner reminded the insurance adjuster that he had not mentioned the disfigurement in his settlement with the worker, and asked him to make arrangements for an operation to clear up the scar. The worker then said he did not want an operation, that the scar did not bother him, and that instead of an operation he would like to have some money. The deputy commissioner replied that the purpose of the compensation act was to relieve the consequences of an injury rather than to pay for injuries that could be cured; that if he received the cash it would soon be spent, but that he would have to live with his scarred face for the rest of a lifetime. Meanwhile, from an adjoining room, the insurance adjuster had telephoned a surgeon and learned that the cost of an operation in this case would be $250. The adjuster so reported to the deputy commissioner and agreed to take care of this expense, and also to pay the worker for the additional time lost in connection with completing the cure. The worker refused the operation, and again asked for money. The deputy commissioner replied that since the scar meant so little to the worker himself, he would award only $150 in cash, and reminded the worker that the insurance company was willing to spend $300 if necessary for surgical attention and payment for lost time. Once more the worker refused the alternative, and said that he would be glad to get the $150.

It is apparent that, in applying the benefit provision in this case, the administrator was handicapped by the lack of a clause in the act requiring that, if practical, disfigurements shall be reduced by medical treatment before they are rated for compensation payments. Under such an arrangement the worker would have had no financial inducement for refusing medical aid.

Certain types of injury may be exaggerated deliberately or by neglect, and there are occasional instances of such abuses. Proved instances of self-injury, to collect compensation, are very rare. Because one obstacle to broadening the benefit scale has been the fear of malingering, it is apparent that the permanent improvement of the benefit system, in law and application, is safeguarded by linking the scheme of payments to the most complete possible restoration of the worker as a chief aim of administration. In some jurisdictions there has been notable progress in this direction both through medical aid and vocational rehabilitation, but as a rule the development is at a half-way stage.

Increasing Diversity in the Benefit Systems

The continuing diversity in benefit provisions was deplored by Donald D. Garcelon, chairman of the Maine Industrial Accident Commission, at the 1936 meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions:

> Not only do the individual States vary greatly in the amount of benefits paid for similar losses, but their entire systems of such compensation, including other factors, in many cases differ widely. In fact, the amounts paid for the losses of certain members in each State often bear no consistent relationship at all to the amounts paid for the losses of other members, nor are they in proportion to the value of the body as a whole. The various systems of such compensation in the United States, or lack of system, have been characterized as a veritable crazy quilt. The schedules themselves have been declared over and over again, by commissioners and other competent authorities, as haphazard, unscientific—even as absurdities. (U. S. Division of Labor Standards Bulletin No. 10, p. 78.)

The details of rating schemes and the schedules for compensating permanent disabilities are found in the proceedings of meetings of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, to which reference is made.[7]

Disadvantages of the prevailing interstate diversity in the scale of compensation include (1) the bewilderment of workers who find, when moving from one State to another, different practices in the payment for injuries; and (2) because of the operation of interstate competition, the retarding effect of low benefit scales in some areas upon programs for securing liberal scales elsewhere.

There has been a continuing demand for exact and detailed information upon differences in the scales of payment in the various jurisdictions. But comparisons and tabulations of benefit systems, in other than a broad and general way, are subject to many qualifications and at some points fail to reflect the exact situation. Because the variations occur not only in the percentages and items but in underlying principles and administrative applications, it is difficult to find a common yardstick by which the benefits of the systems can be measured for the purpose of comparison. Until more uniform bases and administrative practices are adopted, the difficulty of making comparisons will persist.

Comparison of Benefits Made by National Council on Compensation Insurance

The National Council on Compensation Insurance prepares each year for its member companies a "Table of Comparative Benefits, showing the approximate relative values of the benefit provisions of

[7] See especially U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 511 (p. 291); and U. S. Division of Labor Standards Bulletins No. 4 (p. 46) and No. 17 (p. 78).

the various compensation acts as near as can be estimated." The letter of transmittal notes, however, that—

The index numbers shown are subject to qualification and limitation because of the many elements entering into the computations which are not subject to exact mathematical valuation. In addition, the index of cost under the "Total" column is a weighted average and is correct in a general way only. The distribution of accidents by type of injury varies between States and will, therefore, be somewhat different in each case from the national distribution or from the distribution of any other set of weights which might be used to obtain an average. For these reasons the index numbers of this table cannot be interpreted as representing without qualification a mathematically exact comparison of the benefit provisions of the various compensation acts. Accordingly, when using this table or quoting therefrom, it is essential to realize its limitations.

Subject to these qualifications, the table for 1938 (reproduced below) shows variations in the scale of total benefits, as compared with an index of 1.000 for New York as the base, ranging from 0.578 for Vermont to 1.145 for Wisconsin. Much greater variations are found in the comparative liberality of payment for the different types of injuries; as, for example, for permanent total disability, 0.178 in South Dakota compared with 1.000 for New York and 1.073 for Wisconsin.

Comparative Benefit Cost of Various Workmen's Compensation Laws [1]

State	Fatal	Permanent total	Permanent partial		Temporary total	Medical and hospital	Total benefits	Benefits provided in law of—
			Major [2]	Minor [3]				
New York	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	9- 1-37
Alabama	.424	.322	.553	.750	.795	.912	.741	5- 1-36
Alaska	.947	.500	.984	.805	1.255	--------	1.004	6-10-37
Arizona	1.089	.897	.773	.867	1.232	.957	.994	6-26-33
California	.498	.576	.642	.736	.912	1.000	.820	8-27-37
Colorado	.453	.644	.587	.397	.577	.957	.669	8-13-37
Connecticut	.498	.339	.795	.737	.779	1.000	.807	7- 1-37
Delaware	.339	.226	.481	.587	.736	.802	.642	5-19-37
District of Columbia	.772	.414	1.016	1.013	.974	1.000	.960	5-26-34
Florida	.487	.244	.592	.751	.886	.994	.798	7- 1-37
Georgia	.393	.242	.506	.683	.704	.969	.717	3-30-37
Hawaii	.459	.244	.760	.782	.826	1.000	.813	5- 3-37
Idaho	.563	.515	.650	.653	.799	1.000	.784	5- 6-37
Illinois	.542	.568	.643	.852	.803	1.000	.820	7-13-37
Indiana	.498	.289	.666	.777	.754	.957	.775	6- 7-37
Iowa	.501	.292	.523	.550	.645	.994	.709	7- 4-37
Kansas	.496	.321	.626	.764	.807	.969	.785	5-15-35
Kentucky	.495	.305	.455	.578	.856	.957	.734	4-16-37
Louisiana	.438	.339	.583	.644	.925	.944	.770	8- 1-34
Maine	.481	.327	.785	1.220	.866	.784	.823	7- 3-31
Maryland	.608	.343	.683	.741	1.095	.969	.861	6- 1-37
Massachusetts	.614	.769	.664	.555	1.046	.994	.836	8-27-37
Michigan	.579	.400	.575	.759	.912	.957	.808	11-10-37
Minnesota	.754	.511	.868	.913	.984	1.000	.926	7- 1-37
Missouri	.617	.540	.659	.920	1.127	.944	.892	9-14-31

[1] Examples of use of table: The figures on total benefits for Georgia and New York are 0.717 and 1.000, respectively. This indicates that, on the basis of this table, the ratio of Georgia benefits to New York benefits for all kinds of injury is $\frac{717}{1.000}$ or that Georgia benefits average $\frac{717}{1000}$ of the New York benefits. The figures on permanent total disability for Colorado and Montana are 0.644 and 0.359, respectively. This indicates that on the average, and on the basis of this table, the Montana benefits for permanent total disability are $\frac{359}{644}$ of the corresponding Colorado benefits.

[2] Defined as the loss or loss of use of a hand, arm, foot, leg, or eye and the loss of hearing in both ears. Also partial loss of use is related to the benefits for total loss of use.

[3] Defined as loss or loss of use of thumb, finger, toes, etc.

Comparative Benefit Cost of Various Workmen's Compensation Laws—Continued

State	Fatal	Permanent total	Permanent partial		Temporary total	Medical and hospital	Total benefits	Benefits provided in law of—
			Major	Minor				
Montana	0.628	0.359	0.524	0.444	0.837	0.963	0.744	3-16-37
Nebraska	.562	.594	.716	.787	.833	1.000	.830	8-14-37
Nevada	.919	.703	.622	.722	1.166	.988	.917	4- 3-35
New Hampshire	.498	.210	.436	.288	.909	.877	.666	7-15-37
New Jersey	.506	.882	.735	.956	.944	.877	.836	6- 3-37
New Mexico	.467	.411	.601	.524	.827	.957	.738	6-12-37
North Carolina	.793	.294	.633	.805	.885	.988	.855	4-24-35
North Dakota	.998	.664	.813	.715	1.169	1.000	.962	7- 1-35
Ohio	.720	.856	.763	.832	.878	.938	.855	8-18-37
Oklahoma	[1].576	.418	.745	.856	.956	.938	.846	8-10-37
Oregon	.852	.524	.522	.584	.978	.938	.819	6- 7-37
Pennsylvania	1.004	.840	1.036	1.291	.974	1.000	1.044	1- 1-38
Puerto Rico	.378	.170	.524	.507	.549	1.000	.670	7 -1-35
Rhode Island	.686	.476	.982	1.158	.924	1.000	.958	4-27-37
South Carolina	.794	.319	.663	.843	1.102	.988	.906	7- 1-37
South Dakota	.378	.178	.554	.687	1.042	.914	.777	6- 1-33
Tennessee	.420	.269	.454	.580	.719	.833	.656	4-22-33
Texas	.638	.319	.561	.716	.906	.950	.802	1- 1-38
United States Longshoremen's Act	.772	.414	1.016	1.013	.974	1.000	.960	5-26-34
Utah	.624	.696	.631	.550	.989	.969	.810	5-11-37
Vermont	.320	.184	.503	.477	.678	.710	.578	6- 1-37
Virginia	.464	.290	.540	.675	.733	.969	.740	6-19-36
Washington	.927	.607	.554	.642	.920	1.000	.853	6-11-37
West Virginia	.724	.799	.701	.895	.932	.988	.886	6-12-37
Wisconsin	.816	1.073	1.645	1.228	1.248	.969	1.145	6- 9-37
Wyoming	.568	.366	.782	.588	.957	.994	.825	3- 1-37

[1] A figure based on actual experience has been substituted for the Oklahoma fatal value. This departure was necessary because of peculiarities in the law.

Experience Relating to the Limits of Liberality

The location of the "floor" and "ceiling" in workmen's compensation benefit systems is of vital importance to workers. It has been seen that during the depression some administrations put an absolute instead of an adjustable floor (which was sometimes a bottomless pit) underneath compensation awards, at approximately a "subsistence" level. Between the years 1930 and 1935 there was not much complaint from workers about the "ceiling" or maximum limit of weekly payments in the jurisdictions which have liberal benefit scales, as, for example, New York, where the maximum is $25 a week. When wages were low and employment was irregular, few of the injured employees had earned, on the average, more than $25 a week. But when wages have been high and employment steady, the weekly maximum has caused much dissatisfaction, especially in jurisdictions allowing only $15 a week or less. Proposals to raise the level of the weekly maximum have long had a place on the legislative programs of labor organizations, and there has been marked progress in this direction since the adoption of the early acts.

The height of the "ceiling," as to weekly payments, is determined not only by the fixed maximum but also by the percentage of wages allowed as compensation. It is plain that if compensation is paid

upon 50 percent of wages fewer workers will receive awards equal to or exceeding the fixed maximum installment than when the percentage is 66⅔ or 70. Conferences on labor legislation have recommended, as the percentage for nonfatal cases, not less than 66⅔ percent of the wage. In Wisconsin the percentage in nonfatal cases is 70, but not to exceed 65 in fatal cases. New York and Ontario are examples of jurisdictions allowing 66⅔ percent in nonfatal and fatal cases.

There has been much conjecture as to the highest percentage of wages that industry can pay as workmen's compensation. In isolated instances compensation of as much as 100 percent has been voluntarily paid by employers, under special arrangements. By an agreement between the city of Winnipeg and the Winnipeg Central Labor Council, that city was paying compensation in 1936 as follows: For the first month during which an employee received workmen's compensation, an amount sufficient to bring the total up to 100 percent of wages; and for the next 2 months, an amount sufficient to bring the total up to 75 percent of wages. Proposals have occasionally been made for legislation establishing a 100-percent compensation scale.

It may be admitted that a prosperous industry can pay 100 percent benefits if safety and personnel conditions are excellent and operation is stable. But such a situation is the exception and not the rule. Under present conditions a law may be regarded as setting a high standard if it provides for benefits at the rate of 66⅔ percent of wages, with lifetime payments for permanent disabilities. With a difference of 20 points between the State with the highest percentage and States paying 50 percent, it is hardly to be expected that there will be further important increases in the percentage paid in the more advanced States until the gap between their rate of payment and that of other States has been lessened. In some jurisdictions there has been difficulty in maintaining the existing percentage levels, especially as regards occupational disease benefits and the coverage of distressed industries. Thus, under recent legislation in Illinois, New York, Michigan, and Ohio, the compensation for silicosis is at a reduced rate of payment. In Nova Scotia the lumber industry successfully resisted an increase in benefits which had been allowed to employees in other industries.

Under adverse accident experience, disasters, and disturbed economic conditions, it has appeared to legislatures that the limits of liberality in compensation payments had been passed in some jurisdictions, and the compensation scale was reduced in part or as a whole.[8] The attainment and maintenance of high benefit scales in some jurisdictions has been at the cost of restricting the scope of

[8] Amendments to the North Dakota compensation act in 1927 reduced the benefits about 20 percent. Benefits under the Puerto Rico act of 1935 are less than those paid in 1925. For example, in 1925, $4,000 was the maximum for death or permanent total disability as against a $3,000 maximum in 1935. The weekly minimum was reduced from $3 to $1.50 and the maximum from $15 to $10.

coverage, leaving out employments and industries in which accidents are severe and wages low, and also employments that are difficult to control by safety codes and insurance regulations. This restriction of coverage has worked hardship upon many wage earners, left outside the compensation provision, who are even more in need of protection than some of the employees covered by the act.

The difficulty of providing coverage that is at the same time inclusive and liberal in benefits is not, of course, an argument for reducing or not increasing benefit scales. It does show the necessity for studying the compensation system as a whole, and also for keeping in mind the conditions which make high compensation benefits possible, especially the safety education of employers and employees and the cooperation of both in the engineering, medical, and adjudication phases of compensation administration. With a better understanding of how social insurance works, and with intelligent cooperation, higher benefits may be paid than would otherwise be possible; more than that, hazardous employments can be successfully covered which, in many instances, are now left outside the scope of the law.

Other things being equal, an economical system of administration and insurance helps to make possible a high-benefit scale. On the assumption that public and private insurance systems are equally efficient, it is of course apparent that the one with an administrative expense ratio of 10 percent of premiums is able to pay higher benefits than one with an administrative cost ratio of 40 percent of premiums. It must be noted, however, that there are variations in the performance of insurance carriers. The costliness of deficient compensation administration is so great that efficient rather than cheap administration should be stressed.

To the factors affecting liberality that have already been mentioned—the scope of coverage, the economic situation as a whole, interstate competition, the favorable or adverse condition of an industry, safety and medical programs, efficient administration, and the intelligent cooperation of employers and workers with all phases of the compensation system—one other consideration remains for the future to determine: The completion of a social-security program, which will help the worker not only in event of an industrial injury but also during sickness, unemployment, and old age, will have some bearing upon the liberality of the payments that can be made for any one of these purposes. Insurance organizations have claimed that in the past workmen's compensation has been made to serve, in some cases, as a substitute for health and unemployment insurance and also old-age pensions. It is for the future to determine whether, on the one hand, the inauguration of health and unemployment insurance and the extension of old-age-pension arrangements will

lighten the burden upon workmen's compensation insurance and consequently make possible a more liberal scale of payment, or whether, on the other hand, the aggregate cost of all forms of social insurance will make economy in each field a controlling consideration. The conclusion seems inescapable that a more inclusive scope of the social-insurance program will compel, through pressure of aggregate cost, closer attention to efficiency and economy in the administration of workmen's compensation and also a more constructive use of benefit payments.

An advance in workmen's compensation law and administration, in regard to benefit provisions, has at times been retarded by the mistaken assumption that industry, on the one hand, is concerned only with the economy of benefit provisions, while labor is concerned only with the liberality of benefits. On the contrary, labor and industry should have a common interest in adequate benefits and an economical compensation system. Inadequate compensation provisions are costly to industry in the long run because they retard the recovery and rehabilitation of injured workers and impair living standards. On the other hand, liberal benefits carelessly administered are in the long run detrimental to workers because they discredit the administration and lead to reaction. In the nature of things, accident benefits can never be satisfactory, not only because human life or limb has no rational money equivalent, but also because everybody loses when industrial accidents occur. On the average, the workman, even under so-called liberal-benefit systems, probably does not receive, net, more than 40 percent of the wage loss entailed by injuries,[9] whereas it has been estimated that, on the average, industrial accidents cost the employers four times the amount of the compensation payments to the worker.[10] From such estimates it is apparent that both the employer and the worker have a stake in accident prevention.

The necessity for observing safety regulations is emphasized by provisions in some of the benefit systems (1) increasing the payment to an injured worker when the injury is caused by the employer's failure to comply with safety regulations and (2) diminishing it in certain cases when the employee has disobeyed the safety orders. The rate of increase or diminution varies; in Wisconsin it is 15 percent and in New Mexico 50 percent. In practice too high a percentage is

[9] The shrinkage from the 50 or 66⅔ percent of wages named in the benefit scales to approximately 40 percent of the wage loss, the amount actually received, is the result of the operation of waiting periods, of the weekly maximum, and other limitations. Under earlier laws, estimates of what the injured worker actually received ranged from 20 to 35 percent. (See U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 301, pp. 8, 66–71.)

[10] The "hidden costs" include time lost by other employees in consequence of accidents, time lost by foremen and superintendents as a result of the accidents, property damage, payment of forfeits for failure to complete the job on time, and portion of overhead cost loss during delay due to accidents. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 536, Cost of Industrial Accidents to the State, the Employer, and the Man, by H. W. Heinrich, p. 172 (1930).

not favored. Compensation administrators are reluctant to make a large reduction in the employee's compensation where a safety regulation has been violated, especially in case of major permanent injuries, because of the severe hardship that would be inflicted upon the injured worker and his dependents. Before making any reductions in compensation, administrators inquire carefully into the posting of the regulations said to have been violated, and also into their actual enforcement.

Features Reinforcing the Benefit System

SECOND-INJURY FUND

An unforeseen consequence of workmen's compensation laws as originally drafted was an adverse effect upon the employment of physically defective workers, because an additional injury to such persons may cause disability out of proportion to the last injury considered by itself. Employers therefore considered the increased risk of loss, in case of injury to a partially disabled worker, a reason for refusing to employ him. For example, when a one-eyed worker loses his second eye in an industrial accident, he is totally disabled for life. If the law requires the employer, in such cases, to pay the entire compensation for permanent total disability, he may be penalized in his insurance costs for having employed partially disabled men. On the other hand, if the employee receives compensation for the loss of one eye only, regardless of the resulting impairment of earning capacity, he is inadequately compensated and the purpose of the compensation act is partially defeated.

To remedy this injustice and also to minimize the handicap of partially disabled workers in securing employment, some of the States have created special "second-injury" funds and amended the compensation act to provide that in case of a second major disability the employer shall be held liable only for the second injury considered separately. The injured employee, however, is compensated for the disability resulting from the combined injuries. The additional compensation is paid out of a special fund supported by death benefit payments to the fund where there are no dependents, from payments in first major injury cases, or both.

There is a statutory provision for second-injury funds in California [11] District of Columbia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania (effective Jan. 1, 1938), South Carolina, Utah, and Wisconsin, and also in the Federal Longshoremen's Act.

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[11] Declared unconstitutional as a result of the strict court interpretation of a too-specific clause in the California constitution. *People* v. *Standard Oil Co. of California*, 132 Cal. App. 563, 23 Pac. (2d) 86 (1933).

Some of the exclusive State funds, as in North Dakota, attain the ends served by a second-injury fund by charging the employer's accident-experience account only for the normal effects of the second injury and charging the excess cost to the reserve or surplus fund. However, employers who pay compensation directly—known as self-insurers—would not be governed in their accounting methods by such provisions unless the compensation act specified the practices to be followed by them in setting up reserves and contributing to the second-injury fund. In the absence of such requirements in exclusive-fund jurisdictions there remains an incentive for the self-insurer to refuse employment to partially disabled men or to discontinue a worker's employment after a first major injury is sustained, since the entire disability resulting from subsequent injuries would be chargeable to the employer at the time the later injuries occurred. At present, except for an unusual provision in the Ohio act (sec. 1465–69), there has been virtually no legislation covering this contingency.

In the absence of second-injury funds, some States provide that the employer shall pay compensation only for such disability as would have been caused by the later injury if there had been no preceding disability, while other States provide that the decreased earning capacity of the employee because of an earlier injury shall be used as a basis in measuring the loss of earning power to be compensated as a result of the second injury. Under such methods of calculation the employee is inadequately protected. Some States attempt to meet the problem created by second injuries by permitting the employee to "waive" compensation for a subsequent injury.[12]

SPECIAL ALLOWANCE IN PERMANENT TOTAL-DISABILITY CASES

By an act of Congress approved May 13, 1936, the United States Employees' Compensation Act was amended to permit an additional allowance of not more than $50 per month to employees permanently and totally disabled where the constant service of an attendant is needed. This is an important advance toward adequate provision for totally disabled workmen, in the absence of which great hardship is sometimes entailed both upon the disabled person and his family. A workmen's compensation commissioner who has observed the experience of injured workers for 20 years was of the opinion that most totally disabled workers do not live long after the injury and that the cost of adequate provision for them is not a burdensome feature of the insurance system. Few families of injured workers are in a position to sustain both the diminished income from wages and the cost of an attendant for a disabled worker when one is needed.

[12] The Third National Conference on Labor Legislation (1936) recommended: "The right of the employee to waive compensation (should be) prohibited." (U. S. Division of Labor Standards Bulletin No. 12, pp. 97, 98.)

BENEFIT PROVISIONS IN RELATION TO THE REHABILITATION PROGRAM

In a few States there are comprehensive provisions in the compensation acts for thorough cooperation with the program of rehabilitation agencies for restoring injured workers to vocational usefulness. Adequate cooperation necessitates a second-injury fund, a rehabilitation fund, properly drafted compensation scales, and special maintenance payments to injured employees undergoing retraining,[13] to be made from the rehabilitation fund if there is one.

Insufficient study has been given to the problem of devising a system of rating disabilities that will give a maximum incentive to the worker's full cooperation in his restoration to vocational activity. Under the prevailing plan in most of the States the worker who has sustained a permanent partial disability receives full compensation for a limited number of weeks, while under the Ontario plan he receives full compensation during the healing period and then partial compensation during life.[14] In criticism of the practice of paying full weekly compensation for partial disabilities it has been urged that it is the tendency for the man receiving full compensation "to stay away from the job" until the payments cease.[15] If the payments are generous, the loss of compensation through a prompt restoration to earning capacity may outweigh, in the worker's mind, the desirability of rehabilitation. From the point of view of the rehabilitation program, it appears that the best arrangement is full compensation during the healing period plus a special maintenance allowance during retraining, followed by partial compensation for life, based upon degree or impairment, or loss of earning capacity.

There is a conflict of viewpoint and practice with regard to continuing compensation payments to a permanently injured worker if he is reemployed at the full wage received by him before the injury. The more generous practice was advocated by an Ohio commissioner who said, in a discussion of this point, "When we get a young man or an older man who will cooperate with the rehabilitation service, we go along with him." Instances were mentioned of payment of permanent disability compensation to workers who, after retraining, had been reemployed at a wage equal to or greater than that received before the

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[13] In Wisconsin the additional compensation for maintenance during rehabilitation is not more than $10 per week during a period not to exceed 20 weeks. In Arizona no limit is placed upon the additional amount that may be spent for rehabilitation, but up to the year 1935 the special rehabilitation fund was accumulating instead of being frequently utilized.

[14] Sec. 39 (1) of the Ontario act provides for the computation of the payments upon the difference in the employee's earnings before and after the injury, but this provision is now disregarded in practice and compensation computed upon the broader basis of sec. 39 (3): "Where deemed just, the impairment of earning capacity may be estimated from the nature of the injury, having always in view the workman's fitness to continue the employment in which he was injured or to adapt himself to some other suitable occupation." This section allows the board considerable discretion in rating injuries.

[15] A. J. Altmeyer, in U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 536, p. 137 (1930).

accident. "We encourage them to go back and earn what they can, feeling it is in the interest of the public policy that it should be done".[16]

A base broader than wage loss alone for compensating permanent injuries was advocated by Carl Hookstadt:

> Most persons sustaining the loss of a major member suffer a serious handicap, irrespective of any wage loss. Such a person's expenses are probably greater than those of a normal person, and in addition he suffers many inconveniences and hardships and loses opportunity for advancement and enjoyment of life not experienced by a normal fellow worker. Such a loss deserves a recompense. (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 333, p. 88.)

In the judgment of rehabilitation officers, a physically disabled person suffers an employment handicap during his working life and especially when it becomes necessary for him to find new employment. Regardless of the wages earned by a disabled person after his reestablishment in industry, he is faced with a more restricted employment horizon than the able-bodied worker. The injustice of requiring such a person to sacrifice any part of the compensation due him because of the wage he receives after reemployment may therefore be recognized.

In many jurisdictions the unwise granting of lump-sum settlements has been an obstacle to rehabilitation. Workers unaccustomed to handling large sums of money are exploited by salesmen and others when they receive their compensation in a lump sum. In many cases workers receiving lump-sum settlements have considered rehabilitation only after they became destitute. In the judgment of rehabilitation officers the benefit provisions should restrict and safeguard but not entirely forbid lump-sum settlements.[17]

BENEFIT PROVISIONS FOR WIDOWS

Application of group experience in benefit provisions for widows.—The necessity for applying the purpose and principles of a compensation system to each feature of the program is again evident upon examining the customary provision for widows of killed workmen. The existing plans are upon an arbitrary or traditional basis too much resembling the common-law payment of damages for a loss, the chief difference between collecting damages in the courts and receiving compensation being that under compensation the amount is specifically defined and the payments are usually periodic instead of in a lump sum. For compensation purposes all widows are looked upon as alike, except that in some jurisdictions the size of the family, as to dependent children, has more effect upon payments than in others. Many acts provide for additional payments to children, but on account of per-

[16] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 536, p. 138.

[17] Because of unsatisfactory experience with lump-sum settlements in Puerto Rico the 1935 act restricted them to fatal cases. Administrative safeguards required are investigation by the manager of the fund and unanimous approval of the settlement by the industrial commission, with a statement of the facts and reasons for such action.

centage-of-wage and weekly payment limitations, the additional amount allowed may be small, and quite inadequate for the support of the children especially if there are several of them.

Although it is recognized that workmen's compensation is social insurance, the group experience of beneficiaries has seldom been considered as having any bearing upon benefit provisions. With commendable initiative, the California Industrial Accident Commission, in 1919, sponsored a case study of the experience of widows who had received compensation. The necessary basis—commonly forgotten—for an improvement in compensation provisions is a study of the actual experience and needs of the persons involved. The California study disclosed that, for compensation purposes, the group of widows needed to be divided into such classifications as "lone widows," "widows with one child," "widows with several children," and also that there were important differences arising from age, health, and family connections. In the cases studied some of the widows did not need a pension, while in other cases families were broken up and great hardships suffered because the pension was inadequate or paid for too brief a period. The California commission stressed the undesirability of the existing indiscriminate provision as encouraging young widows without children to remain idle and dependent, while the inadequacy of the payments to widows with several children undermined living standards and broke up homes. Under the commission's proposal, adequate life-time pensions would be paid to widows who needed them. Such an increase in the cost of widows' pensions would be balanced by savings through rehabilitating childless widows eligible to retraining for gainful employment. "The reeducation, rehabilitation, and placement of dependents is as essential to the well-working of a compensation law as in the cases of workmen permanently crippled, and should be provided for either in the death-benefit law itself, or by some auxiliary source of income." [18] The plan was presented to the annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions as early as 1920, but there has been no development of this kind in the compensation systems.

The difficulties in relation to widows' pensions, disclosed by the California case study, remain unsolved. In many jurisdictions the benefit schemes are not sufficiently flexible to meet the emergency of widows with several children, because the ostensible allowance of additional amounts for the support of children is largely neutralized by limitations of the period during which the provision for dependents may continue, of the total amount payable, or both.

Arrangements for supplementary payments to dependents.—In Wisconsin there is a separate fund out of which additional death benefits

[18] U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 281, pp. 348–374. For a later discussion of the problem, see Bulletin 536, pp. 129–130.

are paid to children under the age of 15, and such a device merits study as a clue to desirable readjustments in the benefit provisions for dependents. The Wisconsin arrangement operates in two directions to discourage discrimination by employers against hiring workers with dependents. At the same time it removes the differential in insurance loss upon workers with families, and makes necessary the collecting of appreciable payments from employers in cases of fatal injuries to workers without total dependents, the maximum charge for the children's additional death benefit fund being $2,000 in such instances.

States which have or in future provide second-injury and rehabilitation funds could meet the purposes of the Wisconsin arrangement by expanding the scope of such funds to include part of the benefits to dependent children in cases where, because of the size of the family, the requirements of a subsistence provision would exceed the maximum percentage of payments fixed by the statute.[19]

The expansion of second-injury and rehabilitation funds to include payments above the basic maximum where there are several dependent children would cause a more active use of these funds. In several instances money has piled up in rehabilitation funds, almost unused, to such an extent as to create an administrative embarrassment.

There are few jurisdictions which have supplementary arrangements for increasing the amount or extending the term of payment to dependents. In many of the States widows' pensions are for a limited period and payments cease in some instances when the need for support is greatest. In practically all jurisdictions the amount is insufficient to maintain a completely dependent person. But in Utah the Industrial Commission has discretionary power to extend payments to wholly dependent persons after the expiration of the customary term of benefits. The additional amounts are paid out of a special fund maintained, for this and other purposes, by payments in fatal injury cases where there are no dependents.

Lifetime pensions are desirable in some but not all cases.[20] Complete and permanent dependence upon an inadequate pension is demoralizing.

Special payment to widows.—The Ontario and Quebec acts provide for a special payment to the widow of $100, in addition to all other benefits. Such a provision is based upon the well-understood need of the widow of a killed workman for immediate cash with which to meet extraordinary incidental expenses.

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[19] In Russia the maximum payment to dependents is from 94 to 100 percent of wages. See Report of the International Labour Office, Part II, Social Conditions: Technical Tripartite Meeting on the Coal-Mining Industry, p. 74, Geneva, 1938.

[20] According to Pennsylvania experience for the policy years 1930-34, of 1,465 widows of killed workers 590, or 40 percent, were without children.

Safeguarding the Welfare of Injured Workers and Their Dependents

"AFTER-CARE" SERVICE

The New York Division of Workmen's Compensation has on its staff specialists in "after-care" service to workers and their dependents. Among other activities, this unit gives advice on the law and secures "financial assistance from outside agencies to carry the worker and his family along until a decision is made on his claim."

As early as 1920, A. J. Pillsbury, of the California Industrial Accident Commission, suggested a plan of development to meet the need for "the reeducation, rehabilitation, and placement" of dependents of killed workers. But the Federal rehabilitation act did not extend to widows and children the service it provides for disabled workers. With the enacting of the Federal law, the movement of individual States to set up independent rehabilitation systems ended. The California plan was dropped, and a gap remains in the compensation and rehabilitation service at the point discussed by the California commissioner. After-care service to dependents of workers by the compensation administration is needed, especially as to financial guidance and funeral contracts. This is largely a neglected field in the development of compensation administration.

At present, there is an almost complete lack of information in the compensation agencies as to the experience of widows in regard to expense for burials.

The Washington act (sec. 7679a), for example, provides: "No sum shall be paid an undertaker for the burial expenses * * * unless the undertaker shall make and file with the department an affidavit that no part of the burial expenses have been either directly or indirectly paid by or charged to the widow or orphan child or children." In 1935, however, the compensation officers said this provision was not enforced.

Inasmuch as the compensation agency pays a funeral benefit, it should be in a position to pass upon the bills for burial expense, in like manner as the commission supervises medical bills, and safeguard the widow against assuming a large debt for expense in addition to the amount allowed the undertaker in the benefit provisions. The restriction of expense found in the Washington act, to be readily enforceable, requires the supplementary clause, "unless the contract for such expense in addition to that provided for under the act shall have been approved by the commission." What is reasonable in the circumstances can be determined only by an examination of each case.

SAFEGUARDING THE EXPENDITURE OF COMPENSATION PAYMENTS

Prior to the enactment of workmen's compensation laws, when the injured worker or his dependents collected damages in the courts, no public interest was recognized in the use of the money received. What was done with it, and how soon the receivers became destitute, was the business only of the successful party in the lawsuit. In contrast, provisions in the more advanced compensation acts recognize a fundamental difference between compensation benefits and recoveries at law. The theory is occasionally urged that compensation belongs to the worker to do with as he pleases, and that it should be paid in a lump sum if desired by him. The fact that under compensation law the benefits are paid to the worker without regard to fault in the cause of the injury is, however, ample basis for the principle, recognized in advanced compensation law, of a public interest in the transaction.

The third National Conference on Labor Legislation (1936) recommended that "commutation of workmen's compensation shall be approved only for good cause shown with proper safeguards as to the use of the funds so commuted, with the best interests of the workman or his dependents in case of death being the primary consideration."

An example of broad power given the compensation administration to safeguard the expenditure of compensation awarded to minors is found in the Alberta act, section 59:

> Where a workman or a dependent is under the age of 21 or under any legal disability the compensation to which he is entitled may be paid to him or applied in such manner as the Board may deem most for his advantage.

Section 47a of the Ontario act safeguards the wife and children of workmen receiving compensation. If a worker is entitled to compensation and it appears to the board that the worker is no longer residing in Ontario, but that his wife and children are still residing there without adequate means of support and apt to become charges upon charity or public relief, the board may pay his compensation, in whole or in part, to the wife and children. If the worker still lives in Ontario but is not supporting his wife and children, the board may, in certain cases, divert his compensation for the benefit of the wife and children.

COOPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS AS EMPLOYERS

Summary

IN THE cooperative movement in the United States there cannot be said to be any real personnel policy such as has been worked out in Great Britain and the Scandinavian countries. The young and struggling movement here has been too preoccupied with the primary business problems to give much time to consideration of a well-reasoned policy of industrial relations. The conditions accorded to employees have depended on the good will of the directors of the individual association, the financial status of the association, and the association's degree of acceptance of the Rochdale fair-wage standards.

Detailed field studies were made in a number of localities in connection with the Bureau's survey of cooperative associations. These revealed that, in general, relationships between the workers and the associations were good. Certainly, unrest and dissatisfaction as exemplified by strikes have been infrequent. This may have been due to a number of factors: The large majority of associations have been in small rural places where there was little labor organization and no tradition of concerted labor action; the associations were generally small and employed only one or two workers; the employees were cooperators as well as employees and as such were imbued with the idea of promoting the cause; and they were convinced that it was the desire of the members to provide as good wages and hours as conditions would permit. With the development of large associations employing considerable numbers of workers, with the expansion of the cooperative movement more and more into industrial communities having a strong labor consciousness, and especially as a result of the unionization drives, disputes may be expected to occur with greater frequency unless machinery is adopted to deal with them. That this is realized by the cooperative leaders is indicated by frequent articles and editorials in the cooperative papers.

The provision of good wages and working conditions is one of the approved practices of Rochdale cooperation. That such conditions are in fact, provided in most foreign countries where the movement is well developed is borne out by a study recently made by the International Labor Office.[1] The data gathered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its survey of cooperatives, covering the year 1936, indicate a wide range in both wages and hours among the consumers' cooperatives in the United States. Further, on the basis of such figures as are available for private retail trade, both wages and hours in cooperative employment appeared to be somewhat less favorable than those in private business in 1936.

[1] International Labor Office, Cooperative Information (Geneva), Nos. 1 and 2, 1938: Conditions of Work of Employees of Consumers' Cooperative Societies.

Average annual earnings per employee in some 1,500 retail distributive associations for which such data were obtained amounted to $1,155 for 1936.[2] In this connection it should be borne in mind that 72.5 percent of the total cooperative retail trade in that year was done in places of less than 5,000 population, where living costs are likely to be lower than in the cities. However, this average included the remuneration of the managers as well as clerks. Although there is not so wide a gap between wages of the manager and those of the clerks in cooperatives as in private business, inclusion of the manager's salary does bring up the general average and the clerks' earnings would therefore be below even the average noted above.

As the membership of cooperative associations is composed quite largely of industrial workers and farmers, undoubtedly the wage levels in the associations were influenced by the fact that the wages in industrial employments and the farmers' incomes fell to extremely low levels during the depression. As a result, in some cases the earnings of the workers employed in the cooperative stores were above those of a considerable proportion of the members. It was hard in such cases for the membership to bear in mind that their employees' rates should be fixed on the basis of the kind of services performed for the association, and not necessarily in relation to the earnings of the members in totally different lines of work.

Hours of work were still long in many cases. At the end of 1936 only 26.8 percent of the employees were working the 48-hour week or less, which is prevalent abroad in cooperative employment.

Cooperative employees do have the advantage of patronage refunds on their purchases from the association. It may be that clerks in private stores have the privilege of obtaining their supplies at reduced prices, but there is no information available regarding the prevalence of such a practice. Reduced prices to employees are not common in the cooperative movement.

Such data as are available regarding vacations, absence on account of sickness, and occasional time off during working hours indicate that cooperative associations are quite generous in their treatment of employees in these matters.

From the information at hand it appears, also, that cooperatives provide relatively stable employment and that the average period of service of their employees is quite long. Undoubtedly this security of tenure is a factor of considerable importance.

Personnel Policies

Hiring and firing.—Authority for the employment and discharge of cooperative employees is generally vested in the board of directors,

[2] The average annual earnings of employees of wholesale cooperatives for 1936 were $1,132.

but in practice may be delegated by it to the manager. Wage rates are generally set by the directors, often with the advice of the manager and in exceptional cases by him alone.

A study of personnel relations in cooperative associations undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the end of 1930 [3] indicated that few even of the larger organizations had any provision for regular increases in wages or any definite line of promotion within the organization. One exception was an association whose policy it was to appoint the managers of departments and the head clerks from among the employees of the department having the vacancy. In another association, without a definite policy in this regard, all of the department managers had in fact arisen from the ranks.

New employees of cooperative associations may be obtained from among the membership, from students trained in courses given by the cooperative wholesales and central educational organizations, or from trade-union sources. In sections where the movement is well developed, as in the North Central States, there is considerable shifting of employees from one association to another; managers in that district are quite often drawn from rank-and-file employees of other associations. Notices of positions open frequently appear in the cooperative papers. That the entrance wage in such cases may be largely a matter of individual bargaining is indicated by the frequency, in such advertisements, of the clause, "please state salary required"; the amount offered by the association is almost never mentioned in the notice.

Adjustment of grievances.—The 1930 industrial-relations study revealed that joint meetings of employees and management were quite common. These were, however, designed in most cases rather to increase the employees' working efficiency and their understanding of cooperative methods than to solve their problems as employees.

The employee in the cooperative movement is in an unusual situation. In addition to his role of employee, he is in most cases also a member of the association that employs him. In that association he is of equal importance with every other member. If his grievances cannot be ironed out by appeal to the manager and then to the board of directors, they may be brought before the members at a general or special meeting. This, of course, is a situation not found in the ordinary stock company.

In most of the associations visited the wage rate was set by the board of directors and all complaints regarding remuneration had to be taken to the board. An exception was an association where the manager not only hired and fired the employees, but fixed their rates of pay. In one of the older organizations, where the board of directors set the wage levels, a special board had been created to deal with

[3] Increased pressure of work and lack of funds, because of the depression, prevented the completion of this study. It was to have covered associations with 10 or more employees.

complaints regarding wages; this board, which met regularly once a month, consisted of the general manager and two of the directors.[4]

Overtime.—Overtime work is uncommon in cooperative associations. It must be said, however, that certain conditions peculiar to the movement tend to shorten the free time of the employees, and especially of the manager. Some of the associations hold weekly, biweekly, or monthly meetings of the employees, at which business problems and other topics are discussed. The manager must, of course, be present also at all general and special membership meetings, recreational activities, etc. Quite often he is invited to speak before the youth league or the women's guild, or to take part in other extra-business activities. It is well known among observers of the movement that many demands are made upon the time of the manager and workers outside of working hours.

Vacations.—Information on this point was not requested in the general survey, but was obtained in the spot studies. It was customary for the cooperative stores in St. Louis County, Minn., to give employees a paid vacation. Generally the vacation was 1 week, after a year's service. Exceptions were one association which allowed a 2-week vacation, and one in which the period of service required was only 6 months. One association whose policy it was to give a week's vacation with pay had to discontinue the practice, for financial reasons, during the depression. Four associations gave no paid vacation. Of the private stores in the same territory for which data were obtained, only four gave a paid vacation of 1 week; an additional firm used to to do so but had discontinued the practice. Another store had recently been sold to a new owner and no vacation policy had been decided upon. Both private and cooperative stores were lenient with employees as regards occasional time off during working hours. Generally, no deduction of pay was made in such cases, or for short periods of sickness. One of the largest cooperative associations allowed casual time off, but deducted from the employees' pay for any time lost, however short, because of sickness.

All but one of the five associations in the northern Wisconsin district allowed their employees a week's paid vacation; two of these required at least 1 year's service. One association gave no paid vacations.

Both the Cleveland and Chicago associations included a large proportion of new associations which had not yet formulated a vacation policy. Of 13 associations reporting in Chicago, 3 gave a paid vacation of 1 week, 2 a vacation of 2 weeks, and 1 a 1-week vacation after 1 year's service and a 2-week vacation after 2 years' service. Of 7 associations which did not give their employees vacations, 2 had given such leave until the onset of the depression.

[4] In some of the foreign countries central wages boards have been created to which wage complaints impossible of local adjustment may be referred. Usually there is also a provision that in case of a general strike in any trade the cooperative employees of the craft concerned shall remain at work, the cooperative associations undertaking in advance to meet any terms won from private employers.

One association in Cleveland gave a week's vacation with pay each year. Another had done so until 1935. Most of the other associations in that city were either buying clubs without paid employees or were groups which had only recently opened their store.

Special facilities and services.—Certain of the largest associations provided special facilities for employees. One provided lunchroom facilities, lockers, shower baths, and a lounging room for the woman employees. Another, which ran a lunchroom as one department of a store and creamery business, gave lunch service to its employees at reduced rates. In this organization, also, a rest period during which coffee and rolls or pastry were served at cost was provided morning and afternoon.[5]

About half of the associations visited in 1930 had provided life insurance for their employees, the cost of which was paid by the association in all but one case; in the exceptional instance half the premium was paid by the employee concerned.

Wage bonuses are very uncommon in the cooperative movement. One of the larger Michigan associations had always paid bonuses to employees at the same rate as the rate of patronage refund to members. A Wisconsin association in 1936 voted to pay its clerks, in addition to salary, a commission of 1½ percent on all sales over $4,500 per month. Many of the petroleum association employees were regularly paid on a commission basis.

Employment in Distributive Associations

Because so large a proportion of the employment in the credit, telephone, and insurance associations is on a part-time basis, the average hourly, weekly, and annual earnings there are of little significance. For the retail distributive associations—i. e., the stores, petroleum associations, and associations retailing other commodities—the proportion of part-time work was reported and could be allowed for. For this reason the following analysis of wages and hours of cooperative employees has been restricted to the retail distributive associations.

Almost five-sixths of the associations reporting in the Bureau's survey furnished data as to employment and pay rolls. On the basis of these reports it is estimated that the retail distributive associations gave full-time employment to some 15,000 persons and disbursed about 17¼ million dollars in wages in 1936.[6]

Nearly half (47 percent) of the distributive associations reporting were employing from one to three workers at the end of 1936. There were, however, slightly over 13 percent which had 10 or more employees each (table 1). All associations combined had an average of 6.5 employees each.

[5] This practice appears to be fairly common among the larger Finnish cooperative associations in the United States.

[6] The wholesale associations had 747 employees and a pay roll for 1936 of $845,909.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Retail Distributive Cooperatives, by Number of Employees, at end of 1936*

Number of employees	Total	Store associations	Petroleum associations	Distributive departments of marketing associations	Creameries and bakeries
All associations	1,531	714	680	127	10
1 employee	194	88	87	19	----
2 employees	259	123	103	32	1
3 employees	265	127	117	21	----
4 employees	193	99	77	17	----
5 employees	120	52	59	8	1
6 to 9 employees	294	132	139	21	2
10 to 14 employees	104	45	52	5	2
15 to 19 employees	46	20	25	----	1
20 to 24 employees	21	10	10	1	----
25 to 49 employees	23	10	11	1	1
50 to 99 employees	9	7	----	1	1
100 employees and over	3	1	----	1	1

Earnings of Cooperative Employees

AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS

For all types of retail distributive associations the average per capita earnings during 1936 were $1,155, ranging from $990 in the store associations to $1,749 in the creameries and bakeries. These averages are based upon full-time workers in associations reporting both number of employees at the end of the year and the total wage payments during the year. They include managers' as well as other employees' remuneration. Probably the actual averages would be slightly higher were they based upon the average number of persons employed throughout the year, for it is known that many associations increased their labor force during the year.

Table 2 indicates considerably higher wage levels in New England and on the Pacific coast than in the other sections of the country. In both cases, however, the average was raised by one large association paying relatively high wages.

TABLE 2.—*Average Annual Earnings of Employees in Retail Distributive Cooperatives, 1936* [1]

Geographic division	All types of associations	Retail store associations	Petroleum associations	Distributive departments of marketing associations	Creameries and bakeries
United States	$1,155	$990	$1,224	$1,208	$1,749
New England	1,316	1,337	----	----	906
Middle Atlantic	1,001	1,059	1,186	----	856
East North Central	1,138	963	1,345	904	1,170
West North Central	1,155	852	1,146	891	2,054
South Atlantic	783	783	----	----	----
East South Central	869	856	1,050	----	----
West South Central	858	778	916	881	----
Mountain	990	949	983	1,382	----
Pacific	1,306	1,130	1,024	1,379	1,263

[1] Data are based upon only those associations which reported both number of employees and amount paid in wages.

Although the general average annual earnings were $1,155, over two-fifths of the associations were paying average wages ranging from $700 to $1,100 per year.

TABLE 3.—*Number and Percent of Retail Distributive Cooperatives Paying Annual Wages of Classified Amount, 1936*

Annual per capita earnings	Number of associations	Percent	Annual per capita earnings	Number of associations	Percent
Under $300	3	0.2	$1,300 to $1,400	69	5.1
$300 to $400	15	1.1	$1,400 to $1,500	44	3.3
$400 to $500	52	3.9	$1,500 to $1,600	34	2.5
$500 to $600	71	5.3	$1,600 to $1,700	32	2.4
$600 to $700	117	8.7	$1,700 to $1,800	20	1.5
$700 to $800	135	10.0	$1,800 to $1,900	23	1.7
$800 to $900	146	10.8	$1,900 to $2,000	15	1.1
$900 to $1,000	156	11.6	$2,000 and over	36	2.7
$1,000 to $1,100	155	11.5			
$1,100 to $1,200	111	8.2	Total	1,350	100.0
$1,200 to $1,300	116	8.6			

Analysis of the annual earnings of employees in 1,344 associations in places for which population figures were available showed no consistent correlation between size of city and amount of wages paid. The distribution is shown below:

	Average annual earnings per employee
Under 100 population	$938
100 to 500 population	960
500 to 1,000 population	1,031
1,000 to 5,000 population	1,092
5,000 to 10,000 population	1,115
10,000 to 25,000 population	1,188
25,000 to 50,000 population	1,241
50,000 to 100,000 population	989
100,000 to 500,000 population	1,261
500,000 to 1,000,000 population	1,091
1,000,000 population and over	999

AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

Tabulation of average hourly earnings showed that the most common rate per hour was between 25 and 30 cents; 17.7 percent of the reporting associations and 16.1 percent of the employees were in this rate range. Some 43 percent of all the employees were earning from 25 to 40 cents per hour. More than 80 percent of the total were being paid less than 50 cents an hour.

Hourly earnings of—	*Percent of associations*	*Percent of employees*
Under 10 cents	0. 3	0. 1
10 and under 15 cents	3. 3	3. 5
15 and under 20 cents	7. 7	4. 7
20 and under 25 cents	12. 0	9. 8
25 and under 30 cents	17. 7	16. 1
30 and under 35 cents	15. 3	13. 9
35 and under 40 cents	13. 4	13. 3
40 and under 45 cents	10. 9	10. 4
45 and under 50 cents	6. 1	10. 1
50 and under 55 cents	5. 3	5. 4
55 and under 60 cents	2. 2	1. 8
60 and under 65 cents	1. 8	2. 7
65 and under 70 cents	1. 2	3. 4
70 and under 75 cents	1. 2	1. 6
75 and under 80 cents	. 8	1. 4
80 and under 85 cents	. 2	. 3
85 and under 90 cents	. 2	(1)
90 cents and over	. 6	1. 5
Total	100. 0	100. 0

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

COMPARATIVE WAGES IN COOPERATIVE AND IN PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has made no general survey of wages, by occupation, in retail trade. However, reports are received each month from employers throughout the United States giving the number of employees and total pay rolls, from which average per capita weekly earnings are computed. In the statement below, the information for private employment is based upon these monthly trend-of-employment reports, and that for the cooperatives is based upon data obtained in the cooperative survey. The statement shows comparative weekly earnings in cooperative and private retail stores and in gasoline service stations in 1936.

	Cooperative employment	*Private employment*[1]
Retail stores	$19. 04	$20. 17
Gasoline service stations	23. 54	24. 95

[1] Computed on basis of returns to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for December 1936, from 21,897 chain and independent retail grocery establishments and 1,649 service stations.

This statement indicates that in 1936 the average wage level of cooperative employees was about 5 percent below that in private employment in the same lines. Increases in wage rates took place in many cooperative associations during the spring of 1937, but the same was true in private employment as well.

The situation shown by the above comparison is confirmed by data obtained from private and cooperative associations in the course of the spot studies made in several localities in May and June 1937. In these cases actual rates on an occupational basis were obtained for the

cooperative associations covered and for private independent and chain stores in the same locality. In most of the organizations wages were paid on a monthly basis. Because of the wide variation in hours worked, all rates were reduced to an hourly basis. The results are shown, by region covered and by occupation, in table 4.

As the table indicates, with a few exceptions the cooperative associations handling groceries were paying lower hourly wages than were the private stores in the same locality. In some cases there was a marked discrepancy between the cooperative and private rate. The employees of the Chicago cooperative restaurant associations, however, were receiving considerably higher pay than the workers in nearby private companies.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Rates Paid by Cooperative and Private Organizations in May 1937, by Occupation*

Occupation	Chicago, Ill.		St. Louis County, Minn.		Northern Wisconsin	
	Cooperative rate	Private rate	Cooperative rate	Private rate	Cooperative rate	Private rate
	Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Grocery stores:						
Managers	44.6	61.4	57.5	56.8	60.6	(1)
Branch managers	----	----	41.6	----	----	----
Bookkeepers, male	37.8	----	41.8	46.9	48.6	(1)
Bookkeepers, female	----	24.6	32.4	32.6	39.1	(1)
Clerks, male	32.9	34.2	30.9	31.0	34.5	46.3
Clerks, female	26.6	34.4	24.4	23.3	27.7	33.3
Meat cutters	50.8	54.8	46.6	48.9	41.6	66.7
Truck drivers	40.5	----	31.8	36.5	43.2	44.4
Restaurants:						
Cooks, male	50.6	36.5	----	----	----	----
Cooks, female	38.9	----	----	----	----	----
Dishwashers	27.9	19.2	----	----	----	----
Waiters	39.6	----	----	----	----	----
Waitresses	29.2	24.9	----	----	----	----

[1] No data.

The proportion of the total operating cost that was spent for wages in cooperative and in private stores is shown below:

	Percent wages formed of total operating expense
Cooperatives:	
All store associations reporting, 1936	59.4
Store associations in St. Louis County, Minn., 1936	56.5
Petroleum associations, 1936	62.2
All store associations reporting, 1933	51.8
Petroleum associations reporting, 1933	59.5
Private dealers:	
Country general stores (Dun & Bradstreet), 1935	61.1
82 chains, 1929	56.6
All retail stores, Census of American Business, 1933	44.8

The 1936 wage bill in cooperative stores in St. Louis County approximated that in the chain stores in 1929, but that for the whole group of cooperative stores was smaller than that of the general stores of private dealers. Comparison of the 1933 data indicates a much

higher proportion of wage expense in cooperative than in private stores.

Hours of Labor

The weighted average weekly working time [7] of employees, all types of associations combined, was 49.5 hours. For the associations in the different lines of business activity the range was from 44.1 for creameries to 56.2 for distributive departments of marketing associations. With the exception of the garage associations, all of the service groups had average weekly hours of 48 or less, whereas in the distributive group only the creamery employees had hours as short as these. A slightly longer workweek was found in the farmers' than in the other distributive associations, as shown in detail in the following statement:

	Average weekly hours
All types of associations	49.5
Distributive associations	54.5
Stores	55.0
Farmers'	55.8
Other consumers'	53.5
Petroleum associations	55.5
Farmers'	55.6
Other consumers'	55.4
Distributive departments of marketing associations	56.2
Bakeries	48.1
Creameries	44.1
Service associations	45.2
Associations providing—	
Meals only	48.0
Meals and rooms	44.7
Laundries and cleaning establishments	48.0
Garages	52.0
Printing and publishing associations	46.8
Recreation associations	47.9

About one-fifth of the employees of cooperative stores and over one-third of the employees of cooperative petroleum associations were working 48 hours or less per week at the end of 1936 (table 5). The largest proportions of both types of associations were working 48 or 60 hours. About 62 percent of the store employees and 56 percent of the petroleum employees were working 54 hours or more per week.

That the larger associations had the shortest workweek is indicated by the fact that although only 15.8 percent of the stores and 29.1 percent of the petroleum associations had a workweek of 48 hours or less, they were employing 21.3 and 34.6 percent of the total workers.

[7] Weighted by number of employees in each reporting association.

TABLE 5.—*Percentage Distribution of Cooperative Associations and of Employees According to Weekly Hours in 1936*

Hours per week	Percent of associations with specified work-week		Percent of employees with specified work week	
	Store associations	Petroleum associations	Store associations	Petroleum associations
Under 40	1.3	0.5	0.8	0.1
40 and under 44	1.5	2.5	1.7	1.8
44	1.0	.5	1.5	2.4
Over 44 and under 48	1.5	.9	2.3	.4
48	10.5	24.7	15.0	29.9
Over 48 and under 54	8.7	5.8	17.1	9.1
54	10.0	9.7	8.9	8.4
Over 54 and under 60	15.3	3.9	16.0	3.5
60	24.3	27.5	20.1	24.7
Over 60 and under 72	19.6	14.1	13.7	12.7
72 and over	6.3	9.9	2.9	7.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Comparison of working hours in cooperative stores and in the private retail stores and the gasoline service stations reporting monthly to the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that there was a difference in favor of the private employees of over an hour a day.

	Cooperative employment	*Private employment*
Retail stores	55.0	46.1
Gasoline service stations	55.5	46.1

Most of the private organizations reporting to the Bureau of Labor Statistics are in urban places, whereas the majority of the cooperative associations reporting are in places of 5,000 population or less. This would account for some of the spread in hours shown above. However, that hours in cooperative associations were often longer than those in private organizations in the same locality is indicated by the following table showing data collected in the various spot studies. Males working in cooperatives had shorter hours than those in private stores in northern Wisconsin and in St. Louis County, Minn. As regards the woman workers in cooperatives, however, only those in St. Louis County were working shorter hours than similar employees in private stores.

TABLE 6.—*Comparative Working Hours in Cooperative and Private Employment, May 1937*

Locality	Men		Women	
	Cooperative stores	Private stores	Cooperative stores	Private stores
Chicago, Ill	56.1	52.8	56.7	48.9
Cleveland, Ohio	52.9	(1)	43.7	(1)
Northern Wisconsin	52.8	56.0	50.4	48.0
St. Louis County, Minn	54.9	56.2	53.7	56.2

[1] No data.

The Cooperatives and Organized Labor

In Cleveland the older associations and most of the newer cooperative associations were found to be definitely "prolabor." Among the older groups this had found expression in assistance to strikers, in the form of coal at cost and donations of food. Both old and new groups expressed preference for union-label goods and for goods made or sold under good labor conditions. Concerted effort was being made to bring more wage earners and trade-unionists into the cooperative movement.

In one large association studied in 1930 all employees were unionists; this was in a city where labor organizations had at that time made little headway. In fact, the office employees of this association formed practically the whole membership of the local office workers' union. The truck drivers received the union scale, and the wages of office employees were considerably higher than the union scale.

The cooperative associations whose members were industrial workers were more apt to encourage unionization of their employees than were the associations whose members were farmers. Some of the former group, in fact, required their workers to be members of the union of their craft or to become such within a specified time after being hired by the association. The bakery and dairy associations were almost without exception unionized. In fact, a number of them were started by striking employees of private plants. These associations have always been strong supporters of organized labor.

COOPERATIVE WORKERS' UNION

In 1930 the workers in the cooperative stores of Virginia, Minn., took the initiative in the formation of the Cooperative Workers' Union, along industrial lines. At that time there was practically no labor organization of retail clerks in that region.

The preamble to the bylaws of the union stated that the workers felt "the need for cooperative employees to create some bond of unity among themselves, to promote common interests both as wage earners and as responsible cooperators, and through organizing to assure acceptable standards of wages and working conditions." Other objectives were to act as an employment agency and to do educational work on cooperation among the members. The union pointed out that its intention was not to compete against craft labor organizations where cooperative employees were already organized.

When the national congress of the Cooperative League met in 1930, the union petitoned for recognition. The petition was tabled, after much discussion, on the ground that recognition might cause the cooperative movement to seem to be encouraging dual unionism.

The union reached its peak at the end of 1930, when it had about 450 members. Thereafter it declined considerably and by May 1937 had only from 180 to 200 paid-up members. Several factors contributed to its decline:

(1) After the formation of the union in 1930, a number of A. F. of L. locals of retail clerks were formed, and in such places the cooperative employees generally preferred to join the craft union.

(2) Its membership was in small groups scattered throughout the territory and it was hard to keep up interest.

(3) Some of the cooperators—especially those belonging to craft unions—were inclined to regard it as a "company union." Realizing this, the union made overtures for affiliation to the A. F. of L. in communities where a federation local was not already in existence.

(4) Although associations gave recognition to the union, in only a few cases was the union able to obtain a signed agreement.

(5) The plan of the organization to act as an employment agency never materialized, although openings and plans for changes of personnel, discussed at local meetings, did result in some members' obtaining new jobs.

(6) The union was handicapped in not having a full-time organizer. Its officers, also, worked only part time and on a volunteer basis.

(7) Many of the cooperative stores were in farming districts and it was hard to get the farmer members to see the value of labor organization. The officers of the union stated, however, that in most cases as conditions improved, the farmers' as well as the other cooperative associations took steps to revise the wage scale upward.

(8) The union never had any great strength outside the Northern States district, although it had a few scattered locals elsewhere. The Cooperative Trading Co. at Waukegan, Ill., for instance, recognized the union and had an agreement with it.

Gradually losing ground, the union late in the fall of 1937 conducted a referendum among its members as to whether it should be dissolved. The vote being in the affirmative, the organization disbanded toward the end of the year.

On February 2, 1938, the employees of the Waukegan Cooperative Trading Co. and of the Waukegan-North Chicago Cooperative Association met and voted to organize a new union of cooperative workers, with the same name, to replace the defunct organization. The new union went into operation May 1, 1938, and 2 months later was negotiating a collective agreement with these two associations.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

The spot studies disclosed few instances in which collective bargaining, as exemplified by a signed agreement, was in force in cooper-

ative associations. However, practically all either were sympathetic to the unionization of their employees, or expressed no opposition.

In Chicago, the employees in most of the store associations were not unionized. Exceptions were two associations where the employees had joined a C. I. O. union, and one association whose meat cutters were A. F. of L. unionists. Of three restaurant associations, the cooks and waitresses in one and the bakers in another belonged to the A. F. of L. union of their craft. In no instance was there a signed agreement.

In the two long-established associations covered in Cleveland the butchers were members of the A. F. of L. union, but had no agreement.

In the majority of the associations visited in St. Louis County, Minn., there were or had been locals of the Cooperative Workers' Union. Some were still active. Although in several instances the employees were still nominally members of that union, actually they were not in good standing, and the local was inactive. Others were in places too small to have a local. Five associations had recognized the union but had signed no formal agreement with it. In one case the manager had been pressing for recognition of the local; he was finally successful in obtaining it, but himself resigned from the union in order to remove any appearance of company unionism.

In the five local associations covered in the northern Wisconsin spot study, the truck drivers were, without exception, members of the A. F. of L. union and union conditions and rates were in force. Retail clerks, however, were but little unionized in that district. A unionization drive early in the summer of 1937 resulted in considerable gains. Strikes were called against a number of private retail establishments in Superior, Wis. One of the first organizations to reach an agreement with the union was the People's Cooperative Society (operating two stores, a service station, and an automobile-repair garage), the labor force of whose two stores had long been entirely unionized. Its agreement, signed with the A. F. of L. retail clerks' union, provided for minimum scales ranging from $18 for female clerks (50-hour week) to $25 (55 hours) and $27 (60 hours) for males. The agreement also provided for pay for holidays, and annual vacations.

The year 1937 also saw considerable strides in the unionization of cooperative employees in other places. A mail-order cooperative in New York City, unionized in 1936, renewed its agreement with Department Store Employees' Local Union No. 1250 in 1937. The 1938 agreement provided for a closed shop; a minimum weekly wage of $21; a 39-hour week; pay for vacation, for sick leave, and for 9 holidays; and time and a half for overtime.

A dispute occurred among the employees of a large cafeteria association in New York City early in 1937. This dispute, which involved the questions of unionization and wages, dragged on for weeks and then was referred to a board of arbitration. One question

at issue was how much higher rates than paid by its competitors the organization could afford to pay [8] and still remain solvent. (During the dispute it had "gone into the red" for the first time in more than 15 years' operation.) In accordance with the decision of the arbitrators an agreement with the Cafeteria Workers' Local Union No. 302 was signed on July 26, 1937, which established wage rates 10 percent above the average rates provided by the 10 best contracts in force between the union and private cafeterias in the city. This clause made effective (retroactive to May 1) increases in pay of about 15 percent. Under the agreement all employees must be union members or become so within 6 weeks after hiring. Disputes between management and workers which cannot be settled by negotiation with the union are to be referred to an impartial chairman.

[8] It had always paid rates in excess of those paid by most of its local private competitors.

EARNINGS AND HOURS OF LABOR IN PRIVATE SHIPYARDS, 1936 AND 1937 [1]

Summary

THE shipbuilding industry does not lend itself to mass-production methods; its product is custom-made. Because of this, the industry differs from many other industries, especially with respect to the large number of skilled workers employed Thus, of about 28,000 employees in 8 private shipyards, covered in a study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, over 50 percent were skilled and the remainder were divided among the semiskilled, unskilled, and apprentices.

The average hourly earnings for the industry as a whole were found to be 77.8 cents in August 1936. The drafting employees as a group showed the highest earnings, $1.137, but they were closely followed by the supervisory workers with an average of $1.105. The skilled employees averaged 88.7 cents, semiskilled 69.2 cents, and unskilled 55.9 cents, while the apprentices had the lowest average, 49.5 cents.

When a contract is awarded for the building of a ship, either merchant or naval, it usually contains a definite completion date. This has encouraged the companies to adopt various methods of wage payments based on production standards. The averages shown above include all bonus payments, extra rates for overtime, etc. It was possible, however, for the Bureau to determine the effect of these various methods of wage payments upon actual earnings, since practically all of the workers had a basic guaranteed hourly rate. Thus, it was found that the actual average hourly earnings for all employees were 5.4 cents higher than their average basic rate. This increase of actual hourly earnings over average basic rates for the productive employees ranged from 2.2 cents for apprentices to 7.0 cents for skilled workers.

For all mechanical workers combined, the basic guaranteed rates increased 6.0 percent from August 1936 to May 1937. The largest gains were made by the skilled workers, whose basic rates showed an average gain of 5.1 cents per hour; the increase in the case of the

[1] Prepared by J. Perlman, O. R. Mann, D. L. Helm, and J. T. O'Brien, of the Bureau's Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions.

semiskilled was 3.2 cents, unskilled 2.6 cents, and apprentices 3.9 cents.

The N. R. A. code for the shipbuilding industry stipulated that 36 hours should be the maximum hours of work per week. After the invalidation of the code, the new contracts entered into with the United States Navy allowed a maximum workweek of 40 hours. As it takes considerable time to construct a ship, a number of these earlier contracts were still in effect at the time of the Bureau's survey. In August 1936 the average weekly hours of all employees in private shipyards were 36.4, with more than one-half (55.5 percent) of them working exactly 36 hours.

The highest average hours per week were found among the drafting and supervisory employees (39.6 and 38.9, respectively), who had not been affected by the 36-hour maximum provision in the N. R. A. contracts. The maximum hour provisions of the code did, however, apply to the mechanics and laborers, and accordingly the skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled workers, and apprentices averaged about 36 hours per week.

The average weekly earnings of all employees in private shipyards amounted to $28.34 in August 1936, with the majority of the workers (exactly 60 percent) earning between $20 and $35. These weekly averages ranged from $17.55 for apprentices to $45.07 for draftsmen.

Characteristics of Industry

In recent years the construction and maintenance of a merchant marine by private effort has been an important concern of the United States. Following the Civil War, there was a gradual decline in the building of merchant vessels in American shipyards. It was not until the early part of the World War that national policy again concerned itself with the development of the merchant marine. From the time America entered the World War until about 1922 more than $3,000,000,000 were spent by the Federal Government in developing the merchant fleet. After that, construction once more stopped abruptly, and from 1922 to 1928 not a single ship for foreign trade was built in any American shipyard. In 1928 Congress passed a shipping act designed to stimulate the industry, but with the advent of the depression private shipbuilding again lagged. The object of the Merchant Marine Act of 1936 was to revive the building of private ships, and, under direct subsidy from the Government, place the American merchant fleet on a competitive basis with foreign ships.

Aside from the building of merchant vessels, construction of ships for the United States Navy has been of great importance to the private shipyards. At the time of the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey, which was made shortly after the passage of the Merchant

Marine Act of 1936, the leading private shipyards were engaged almost entirely on naval construction, their only other building consisting of a few deep-sea tankers. Indeed, a large part of the naval construction has always been in private shipyards. From 1902 until the American entry into the World War in 1917, private shipyards constructed nearly 80 percent (in value) of all naval vessels built. Since that time, in accordance with Congressional action, the construction of naval ships has been more or less evenly divided between private and public shipyards.

One important characteristic of the shipbuilding industry is that it does not lend itself to mass-production methods. Not only is the number of ships built in a given yard limited, but there is also considerable variation between ships in design and structure. Even "sister ships" are seldom identical. The fact that the shipbuilding industry is dealing with a custom-made product has resulted in its still retaining a large percentage of skilled workers. A representative of the private shipbuilders, in testifying recently before the Senate Committee on Commerce, stated that 50 percent of the entire mechanical staff of the industry was skilled, with 25 percent semi-skilled and 25 percent unskilled workers. In the present survey, the number of skilled employees, including drafting and supervisory workers, constituted 53.4 percent of the total number covered.

It takes relatively long, though varying, lengths of time to construct different types of vessels. A tanker (about the only type of commercial ship built in recent years) can be constructed in about 1 year or even less, but the time required for the completion of naval vessels averages from 30 months for submarines to 42 months for cruisers and aircraft carriers. Unless a shipyard can keep its ways filled on successive contracts, the shifting stages of production result in occupational fluctuations which tend to produce a high labor turn-over.

Scope of Survey

Shipyards are classified by the Bureau of the Census in its biennial census of manufactures under the "ship- and boat-building" industry, which embraces "shipyards and other establishments engaged primarily in building and repairing vessels of all classes and sizes, and establishments making masts, spars, and other accessories for such vessels." This definition is so broad as to include several types of work that do not compete with each other. From the standpoint of this survey of wages, hours, and working conditions, the private shipbuilding industry has been confined to the construction [2] of deep-sea merchant and naval vessels. The survey was made during the latter

[2] Repair work was included only in those establishments where it was impossible to separate the pay rolls. No establishment engaged wholly in repair work was included.

part of 1936, the data obtained covering a pay-roll period during the month of August 1936.

Information was obtained from eight leading private shipyards, located along the Atlantic seaboard,[3] employing 27,887 workers. With the exception of one shipyard on the Pacific coast, these were the only yards engaged at the time in the construction of deep-sea vessels. Consequently, the survey includes virtually a complete coverage of this branch of the industry.[4] As mentioned previously, nearly all of the new construction of deep-sea vessels in private yards consisted of naval ships. Employeees engaged wholly on repair work were omitted from this survey, the coverage including only such repair work as could not be separated from new construction.

Average Hourly Earnings

Average hourly earnings of all employees covered by this survey in private shipyards amounted to 77.8 cents in August 1936. This covers all payments, including punitive overtime rates and bonus additions to workers with a basic guaranteed minimum hourly rate.

The average earnings per hour of the individual employees, on which the average of 77.8 cents is based, ranged from 30 cents for a first-year apprentice and a draftsman, junior, and tracer, to $2.34 for a first-class supervisor. The distribution of the average hourly earnings (table 1) shows that 7.5 percent of the workers earned under 50 cents an hour, 13.7 percent received $1 or more, and about four-fifths (78.8 percent) were found within the range of 50 cents and less than $1. Nearly one-half (47.7 percent) of the employees were paid under 75 cents. The distribution also shows a succession of concentrations between 50 and 90 cents.

[3] In view of the small number of yards, any presentation of the data either on a State or regional basis might disclose the identity of the firms, and as a result all tables are confined to the industry as a whole along the Atlantic coast.

[4] This coverage may be compared with 44,830 wage earners in 556 establishments in the ship- and boat-building industry on December 31, 1935, as defined by the Census of Manufactures.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Private-Shipyard Employees, by Hourly Basic Rates and Average Hourly Earnings in August 1936*

Hourly earnings	All employees				Drafting employees			
	Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings		Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	27,887	100.0	27,887	100.0	1,162	100.0	1,162	100.0
30 and under 35 cents	97	.3	69	.2	2	.2	2	.2
35 and under 40 cents	400	1.4	357	1.3	11	.9	11	.9
40 and under 45 cents	844	3.0	667	2.4	4	.3	4	.3
45 and under 50 cents	1,071	3.8	1,009	3.6	7	.6	7	.6
50 and under 55 cents	3,520	12.7	2,410	8.6	19	1.6	18	1.5
55 and under 60 cents	1,734	6.2	1,812	6.5	11	.9	11	.9
60 and under 65 cents	3,319	11.9	2,764	10.0	34	2.9	33	2.8
65 and under 70 cents	1,865	6.7	1,963	7.0	16	1.4	13	1.1
70 and under 75 cents	3,015	10.8	2,264	8.1	26	2.2	26	2.2
75 and under 80 cents	1,719	6.2	1,786	6.4	50	4.3	42	3.6
80 and under 85 cents	2,048	7.3	2,196	7.9	51	4.4	51	4.4
85 and under 90 cents	4,780	17.2	3,481	12.5	55	4.7	50	4.3
90 and under 95 cents	1,028	3.7	1,896	6.8	49	4.2	36	3.1
95 and under 100 cents	582	2.1	1,406	5.0	49	4.2	44	3.8
100 and under 105 cents	411	1.5	1,087	3.9	99	8.6	98	8.5
105 and under 110 cents	309	1.1	705	2.5	58	5.0	63	5.4
110 and under 115 cents	217	.8	554	2.0	56	4.8	52	4.5
115 and under 120 cents	156	.6	327	1.2	86	7.4	76	6.5
120 and under 125 cents	181	.6	287	1.0	73	6.3	84	7.3
125 and under 130 cents	136	.5	271	1.0	95	8.2	86	7.4
130 and under 140 cents	167	.6	218	.8	102	8.8	122	10.5
140 and under 150 cents	93	.3	132	.5	86	7.4	82	7.1
150 and under 160 cents	77	.3	83	.3	53	4.6	59	5.1
160 and under 180 cents	71	.3	82	.3	45	3.9	59	5.1
180 and under 200 cents	41	.1	53	.2	25	2.2	32	2.8
200 cents and over	6	(1)	8	(1)			1	.1

Hourly earnings	Supervisory employees				Skilled workers			
	Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings		Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	1,401	100.0	1,401	100.0	12,294	100.0	12,294	100.0
30 and under 35 cents								
35 and under 40 cents								
40 and under 45 cents								
45 and under 50 cents								
50 and under 55 cents	5	.4	5	.4	2	(1)	2	(1)
55 and under 60 cents	11	.8	11	.8	49	.4	47	.4
60 and under 65 cents	3	.2	3	.2	383	3.1	113	.9
65 and under 70 cents	12	.9	10	.7	702	5.7	403	3.3
70 and under 75 cents	4	.3	4	.3	1,880	15.3	894	7.3
75 and under 80 cents	20	1.4	17	1.2	1,485	12.1	1,141	9.3
80 and under 85 cents	33	2.4	29	2.1	1,884	15.3	1,744	14.1
85 and under 90 cents	83	5.9	60	4.3	4,544	37.0	3,132	25.4
90 and under 95 cents	153	10.9	106	7.6	822	6.7	1,683	13.6
95 and under 100 cents	189	13.5	186	13.2	344	2.8	1,138	9.2
100 and under 105 cents	232	16.6	179	12.8	80	.7	796	6.5
105 and under 110 cents	195	13.9	181	12.9	56	.5	454	3.7
110 and under 115 cents	134	9.6	175	12.5	27	.2	326	2.7
115 and under 120 cents	41	2.9	92	6.6	29	.2	158	1.3
120 and under 125 cents	104	7.4	59	4.2	4	(1)	142	1.2
125 and under 130 cents	41	2.9	116	8.3			68	.6
130 and under 140 cents	62	4.4	52	3.7	3	(1)	44	.4
140 and under 150 cents	7	.5	41	2.9			9	.1
150 and under 160 cents	24	1.7	24	1.7				
160 and under 180 cents	26	1.9	23	1.6				
180 and under 200 cents	16	1.1	21	1.5				
200 cents and over	6	.4	7	.5				

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of Private-Shipyard Employees, by Hourly Basic Rates and Average Hourly Earnings in August 1936*—Continued

Hourly earnings	Semiskilled workers				Unskilled workers				Apprentices			
	Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings		Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings		Hourly basic rate		Average hourly earnings	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	4,759	100.0	4,759	100.0	7,208	100.0	7,208	100.0	1,063	100.0	1,063	100.0
30 and under 35 cents	------	------	------	------	18	.2	18	.2	77	7.2	49	4.6
35 and under 40 cents	------	------	------	------	261	3.6	235	3.3	128	12.1	111	10.4
40 and under 45 cents	2	(1)	2	(1)	584	8.1	457	6.3	254	23.9	204	19.2
45 and under 50 cents	93	2.0	55	1.2	798	11.1	721	10.0	173	16.3	226	21.3
50 and under 55 cents	430	9.0	202	4.2	2,842	39.5	1,969	27.4	222	20.9	214	20.1
55 and under 60 cents	327	6.9	306	6.4	1,237	17.2	1,339	18.6	99	9.3	98	9.2
60 and under 65 cents	1,611	33.9	1,001	21.1	1,235	17.1	1,555	21.6	53	5.0	59	5.6
65 and under 70 cents	1,080	22.7	1,068	22.5	45	.6	439	6.1	10	.9	30	2.8
70 and under 75 cents	895	18.8	973	20.5	181	2.5	326	4.5	29	2.7	41	3.9
75 and under 80 cents	140	2.9	482	10.1	7	.1	91	1.3	17	1.6	13	1.2
80 and under 85 cents	80	1.7	317	6.7	------	------	43	.6	------	------	12	1.1
85 and under 90 cents	97	2.0	226	4.7	------	------	10	.1	1	.1	3	.3
90 and under 95 cents	4	.1	66	1.4	------	------	3	(1)	------	------	2	.2
95 and under 100 cents	------	------	37	.8	------	------	------	------	------	------	1	.1
100 and under 105 cents	------	------	12	.3	------	------	2	(1)	------	------	------	------
105 and under 110 cents	------	------	7	.1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
110 and under 115 cents	------	------	1	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
115 and under 120 cents	------	------	1	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
120 and under 125 cents	------	------	2	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
125 and under 130 cents	------	------	1	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
130 and under 140 cents	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
140 and under 150 cents	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
150 and under 160 cents	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
160 and under 180 cents	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
180 and under 200 cents	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
200 cents and over	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

The principal reason for the large spread in the average hourly earnings covering the individual workers is the wide divergence in skill as represented by the various occupations in the industry.[5] The average hourly earnings on an occupational basis are shown in table 2.

[5] This survey included all occupations, except executives and higher supervisory, office, and professional and technical other than drafting employees.

In obtaining the data on wages and hours for each individual worker covered, there was also secured the occupational designation either from the pay roll or other records. Furthermore, a number of shipyards were asked to furnish detailed descriptions of the duties of the various occupations encountered.

An analysis of the occupational information disclosed the lack of standardization of occupations within the industry, with the occupational structure varying considerably from one shipyard to another. First, the limits of the work performed by a given occupation in some cases differed materially from yard to yard. Thus, in one yard it might embrace certain broad duties, while in another yard the same duties might be divided between two or more separate occupations. Second, most of the occupations were divided into classes, each performing certain specialized duties and receiving a given rate of pay. However, the number of classes in a particular occupation differed from one yard to another, so that one might have only two or three and another as many as five or six classes.

Hence, in order to be able to present the wages and hours data on an occupational basis, there was the difficult task of reconciling differences in occupational structure from yard to yard to arrive at a standardized classification for the industry. In general, occupational comparability was obtained by the consolidation of certain occupations or certain classes within a single occupation, but great care was taken to insure that the resulting groupings were sufficiently narrow in scope to maintain the homogeneity of the figures. Furthermore, in view of the Bureau's policy of not revealing the identity of the individual firms, the occupational groupings were arranged in such a manner that the employees who were included represented at least three of the shipyards covered by the survey. Thus, it was necessary in certain occupations to group

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Basic Rates, Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Private-Shipyard Employees, by Occupation, August 1936*

Occupation	Number of employees covered	Average hourly basic rate	Hourly earnings			Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
			Average	Minimum	Maximum		
All employees	27,887	$0.724	$0.778	$0.300	$2.341	36.4	$28.34
Drafting employees	1,162	1.112	1.137	.300	2.002	39.6	45.07
Draftsmen, chargemen	89	1.652	1.695	1.125	2.002	40.1	68.00
Draftsmen, checkers	88	1.379	1.408	.920	1.700	40.4	56.88
Draftsmen	849	1.109	1.133	.520	1.960	39.5	44.77
Draftsmen, junior, and tracers	136	.607	.616	.300	.973	39.5	24.32
Supervisory employees	1,401	1.066	1.105	.520	2.341	38.9	42.95
Supervisors, first	163	1.413	1.438	.864	2.341	40.7	58.50
Supervisors, second	404	1.144	1.188	.682	1.729	39.3	46.65
Supervisors, third	495	1.001	1.029	.540	1.460	38.3	39.44
Supervisors, fourth	339	.900	.943	.520	1.344	38.4	36.20
Skilled workers	12,294	.817	.887	.500	1.486	36.2	32.11
Anglesmiths, first	29	.913	.983	.820	1.190	39.1	38.44
Anglesmiths, second	12	.766	.817	.750	1.000	38.9	31.80
Anglesmiths, third	9	.733	.757	.653	.860	36.0	27.25
Blacksmiths, special and first	55	.896	.944	.800	1.150	37.8	35.69
Blacksmiths, second and third	26	.770	.827	.650	.975	35.8	29.58
Boilermakers, special and first	78	.883	.970	.850	1.260	36.8	35.72
Boilermakers, second	28	.800	.932	.764	1.111	35.8	33.34
Boilermakers, third	28	.740	.783	.694	.850	35.0	27.41
Calkers, wood, first and second	22	.825	.880	.820	1.029	32.1	28.23
Calkers and chippers, first	289	.841	.972	.750	1.284	35.5	34.54
Calkers and chippers, second	132	.761	.878	.650	1.183	34.7	30.46
Calkers and chippers, third	283	.684	.759	.560	1.120	36.1	27.40
Carpenters (shipwrights), first	209	.875	.896	.820	1.191	36.8	32.98
Carpenters (shipwrights), second	127	.805	.875	.770	1.083	37.4	32.72
Carpenters (shipwrights), third	114	.742	.780	.680	1.032	38.4	29.92
Coppersmiths, first	101	1.003	1.097	.820	1.393	35.0	38.38
Coppersmiths, second	46	.875	.961	.750	1.155	35.0	33.65
Coppersmiths, third	31	.793	.848	.720	1.077	35.0	29.67
Coremakers, first and second	36	.861	.973	.778	1.219	37.9	36.88
Cranemen, first	217	.832	.866	.626	1.063	38.3	33.17
Cranemen, second	61	.747	.761	.620	.903	36.8	28.04
Cranemen, third	58	.682	.710	.640	1.037	37.0	26.28
Drillers, first	288	.704	.808	.580	1.157	36.0	29.08
Electricians, special	26	.999	1.043	.949	1.225	37.6	39.17
Electricians, first	502	.862	.924	.790	1.357	36.6	33.80
Electricians, second	207	.797	.848	.720	1.265	36.5	30.92
Electricians, third	166	.745	.798	.660	1.148	36.0	28.76
Engineers, stationary and electric donkey	37	.849	.863	.607	1.319	46.4	40.04
Furnace men, angle and bending, first	19	.879	.993	.620	1.233	35.6	35.35
Furnace men, angle and bending, second	33	.746	.859	.660	1.129	35.2	30.21
Galvanizers	12	.782	.829	.680	.991	36.6	30.32
Gas cutters or burners, first	192	.839	.871	.680	1.245	36.9	32.09
Joiners, first	96	.879	.910	.800	1.436	36.3	33.01
Joiners, second	67	.832	.902	.750	1.187	39.0	35.17
Joiners, third	129	.763	.822	.600	1.103	36.1	29.72
Loftsmen, first	44	1.020	1.084	.900	1.329	37.0	40.10
Loftsmen, second	51	.922	.956	.860	1.222	37.7	36.04
Loftsmen, third	39	.869	.904	.750	1.134	37.2	33.64
Machine operators, plate and pipe shops, first	44	.722	.811	.620	1.226	32.6	26.41
Machine operators, plate and pipe shops, second	24	.652	.726	.580	.987	32.7	23.73
Machinists, special	167	.966	1.033	.920	1.461	36.5	37.66
Machinists, first	1,327	.871	.941	.790	1.386	36.9	34.77

specialists with first-class employes, or fourth- and fifth-class with third-class employees. In no case, however, were more than three classes of an occupation grouped together.

Having developed a standardized classification of occupations for the industry, the next step was to group them into six major divisions, namely, drafting employees, supervisory employees, skilled workers, semiskilled workers, unskilled workers, and apprentices. In grouping the mechanical workers according to skill, the Bureau took into consideration the consensus of opinion of the supervisory officials in various shipyards, in addition to the other occupational information obtained.

In classifying the occupations according to skill, one of the difficulties encountered was in connection with handymen and helpers. Both groups have a large number of workers in this industry, the handymen falling both as regards duties and rates of pay between journeymen and their helpers. Hence, handymen were classified as semiskilled employees, while helpers were classified as unskilled workers, although in most other industries the latter would be classed as semiskilled.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Basic Rates, Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Private-Shipyard Employees, by Occupation, August 1936*—Con.

Occupation	Number of employees covered	Average hourly basic rate	Hourly earnings			Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
			Average	Minimum	Maximum		
Skilled workers—Continued.							
Machinists, second	848	$0.790	$0.855	$0.715	$1.278	36.5	$31.20
Machinists, third	577	.745	.775	.620	1.194	36.6	28.38
Molders, first	50	.885	1.012	.875	1.407	37.6	38.08
Molders, second and third	30	.852	1.001	.800	1.333	37.8	37.85
Painters, special	15	.900	.908	.880	1.032	38.9	35.30
Painters, first	287	.847	.868	.600	1.097	33.2	28.84
Painters, second	184	.747	.806	.550	1.150	38.0	30.67
Painters, third	183	.709	.755	.500	1.041	35.7	26.97
Patternmakers, special and first	90	.993	1.053	.820	1.351	37.5	39.42
Patternmakers, second	18	.944	1.000	.880	1.135	33.0	32.98
Patternmakers, third	29	.903	.964	.790	1.042	34.8	33.57
Pipe coverers and insulators, first	58	.878	.942	.820	1.086	36.6	34.47
Pipe coverers and insulators, second	46	.717	.787	.640	.901	34.9	27.46
Pipefitters, special	17	.936	1.029	.920	1.336	36.0	37.05
Pipefitters, first	293	.874	.920	.775	1.301	36.7	33.79
Pipefitters, second	208	.791	.849	.700	1.119	36.2	30.70
Pipefitters, third	121	.748	.763	.680	.966	35.8	27.33
Riveters, first	146	.832	1.010	.680	1.414	34.9	35.28
Riveters, second	57	.743	.813	.617	1.165	32.5	26.45
Rivet testers, first and second	21	.875	.899	.680	1.000	41.9	37.66
Rollers and pressmen	20	.781	.789	.640	1.000	38.1	30.08
Sheet-metal workers, special	21	.999	1.058	.920	1.283	35.8	37.84
Sheet-metal workers, first	374	.861	.940	.790	1.223	35.7	33.56
Sheet-metal workers, second	360	.770	.872	.720	1.200	35.9	31.33
Sheet-metal workers, third	196	.753	.792	.660	1.282	35.8	28.36
Shipfitters, special	33	.936	.991	.920	1.113	35.6	35.31
Shipfitters, first	408	.865	.966	.790	1.426	36.0	34.78
Shipfitters, second	283	.796	.856	.660	1.321	35.1	30.08
Shipfitters, third	329	.738	.779	.620	1.244	35.4	27.58
Ship riggers, first	135	.840	.859	.680	1.040	37.2	31.98
Ship riggers, second	27	.768	.781	.700	.926	36.8	28.73
Ship riggers, third	29	.642	.646	.600	.735	30.8	19.87
Substation operators	25	.912	.919	.872	1.033	40.2	36.89
Template makers, first	23	.908	.964	.800	1.065	35.8	34.54
Template makers, second	23	.818	.867	.700	.979	36.0	31.20
Tool and die makers, first	26	.914	.959	.700	1.057	37.2	35.63
Tool and die makers, second	43	.819	.879	.750	.935	35.7	31.35
Welders, electric, special	64	.883	1.052	.850	1.302	36.4	38.27
Welders, electric, first	469	.893	1.003	.800	1.486	35.6	35.74
Welders, electric, second	217	.804	.931	.700	1.330	35.6	33.18
Welders, electric, third	330	.693	.850	.599	1.246	33.0	28.06
Welders, gas, special and first	40	.874	.959	.750	1.237	37.9	36.32
Welders, gas, second and third	23	.777	.874	.735	1.045	35.0	30.58
Miscellaneous workers, skilled	57	.843	.887	.700	1.288	38.9	34.93
Semiskilled workers	4,759	.642	.692	.400	1.269	35.9	24.85
Anglesmiths' helpers (strikers)	119	.587	.636	.479	.898	36.4	23.16
Bolters-up, first	287	.621	.708	.500	.996	35.5	25.15
Chauffeurs	88	.679	.711	.463	.944	40.3	28.68
Chippers, foundry and other, first	44	.676	.736	.600	1.007	36.8	27.09
Chippers, foundry and other, second	70	.600	.648	.480	.839	36.7	23.81
Cupola tenders	14	.770	.778	.648	.875	38.8	30.23
Drillers, second	121	.604	.699	.539	1.099	34.4	24.05
Erectors, first	98	.769	.784	.560	1.151	36.7	28.79
Erectors, second	104	.638	.667	.600	.986	36.8	24.53
Fireman, power-plant	30	.649	.649	.565	.704	41.1	26.64
Gas cutters or burners, second	175	.694	.726	.540	1.047	36.2	26.26
Handymen, blacksmith and forge	41	.640	.663	.560	.814	35.0	23.21
Handymen, boilermaking	23	.681	.768	.575	.880	38.5	29.57
Handymen, chipping, calking, and packing	47	.618	.646	.600	.834	33.3	21.55
Handymen, coppersmiths' and pipefitters'	212	.642	.680	.550	.965	35.9	24.40
Handymen, electricians', first	63	.668	.734	.580	.965	36.1	26.50
Handymen, electricians', second	45	.629	.696	.500	.980	35.5	24.72
Handymen, electricians', third	106	.588	.636	.550	.784	35.4	22.51
Handymen, general	169	.657	.684	.550	.876	37.8	25.83
Handymen, mold loft and shipfitters'	323	.620	.702	.500	.991	36.0	25.25
Handymen, painting	96	.624	.676	.550	.988	31.8	21.52
Handymen, plate fabrication	51	.618	.686	.570	.900	36.1	24.74
Handymen, sheet-metal	276	.626	.686	.550	.946	35.1	24.07
Handymen, welding	69	.623	.682	.570	.752	37.1	25.35
Handymen, woodworking	69	.625	.674	.600	.931	34.8	23.47
Holders-on, first	159	.634	.765	.520	1.092	33.9	25.90
Holders-on, second	61	.607	.664	.519	.888	32.7	21.73
Hookers-on and chainmen	190	.562	.579	.400	.712	33.3	19.27

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Basic Rates, Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Private-Shipyard Employees, by Occupation, August 1936*—Con.

Occupation	Number of employees covered	Average hourly basic rate	Hourly earnings			Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
			Average	Minimum	Maximum		
Semiskilled workers—Continued.							
Machine operators, third	38	$0.570	$0.616	$0.460	$0.849	34.0	$20.95
Machinists' handymen, first	133	.674	.722	.560	1.093	38.3	27.65
Machinists' handymen, second	121	.620	.696	.570	.982	36.3	25.28
Machinists' handymen, third	184	.593	.632	.546	.949	37.4	23.62
Punchers and shearers	86	.711	.743	.620	1.114	36.9	27.46
Red leaders	70	.618	.662	.589	.789	36.6	24.25
Regulators	192	.695	.706	.579	.909	36.0	25.39
Riggers, yard and crane	173	.689	.720	.540	.999	35.1	25.25
Stage builders, first	121	.744	.761	.681	.911	36.5	27.82
Stage builders, second	63	.682	.725	.651	.854	36.6	26.51
Stage builders, third	66	.548	.601	.480	.899	35.7	21.47
Water-tight packers, first and second	27	.576	.732	.450	1.269	32.0	23.46
Welders, tack	269	.679	.696	.500	.931	36.4	25.31
Wireman	42	.647	.694	.500	.929	37.0	25.66
Miscellaneous workers, semiskilled	24	.772	.770	.429	.881	37.0	28.44
Unskilled workers	7,208	.529	.559	.318	1.003	36.3	20.29
Bolters-up, second	466	.564	.626	.420	1.003	35.1	22.00
Helpers, blacksmith and forge	170	.604	.631	.460	.826	37.9	23.89
Helpers, boilermaking	109	.563	.627	.480	.758	35.3	22.15
Helpers, carpenters', joiners', and patternmakers'	80	.562	.594	.460	.780	38.0	22.60
Helpers, chipping, calking, and packing	65	.580	.624	.480	.822	36.0	22.47
Helpers, coppersmiths' and pipefitters'	875	.544	.577	.400	.789	35.7	20.58
Helpers, electricians', first	122	.572	.606	.460	.794	36.8	22.27
Helpers, electricians', second	212	.526	.561	.477	.748	34.9	19.60
Helpers, electricians', third	128	.493	.513	.472	.681	35.0	17.98
Helpers, erectors'	98	.510	.511	.460	.640	35.0	17.87
Helpers, general	148	.541	.575	.480	.726	36.1	20.73
Helpers and handymen, foundry	90	.585	.616	.480	.861	38.0	23.43
Helpers, machinists', first	471	.581	.616	.460	.888	36.2	22.30
Helpers, machinists', second	195	.528	.552	.450	.805	36.4	20.07
Helpers, machinists', third	146	.492	.504	.472	.740	37.8	19.04
Helpers, mold loft	67	.549	.576	.400	.821	36.1	20.83
Helpers, painting	94	.510	.536	.360	.780	34.0	18.24
Helpers, plate fabrication	297	.562	.594	.450	.826	36.4	21.61
Helpers, sheet-metal	450	.539	.571	.420	.743	35.6	20.35
Helpers, shipfitters'	678	.546	.572	.380	.794	37.8	21.63
Helpers, welding	23	.547	.552	.450	.700	36.0	19.85
Janitors	87	.492	.501	.378	.694	37.5	18.79
Laborers	1,471	.466	.484	.360	.670	35.0	16.91
Rivet heaters, first and second	186	.507	.576	.360	.900	32.9	18.94
Rivet passers	108	.511	.529	.400	.663	34.7	18.36
Watchmen	339	.535	.537	.318	.813	45.9	24.65
Miscellaneous workers, unskilled	33	.563	.581	.450	.772	39.1	22.73
Apprentices	1,063	.473	.495	.300	.973	35.5	17.55
Apprentices, first year	392	.392	.404	.300	.528	35.2	14.21
Apprentices, second year	366	.470	.490	.400	.826	35.3	17.31
Apprentices, third year	184	.537	.566	.475	.805	36.0	20.38
Apprentices, fourth year	121	.645	.690	.550	.973	35.9	24.77

The drafting employees as a group showed the highest average earnings per hour ($1.137). The range in skill represented here varied, however, from the tracers and junior draftsmen with an average of 30 cents an hour to the highly skilled chargemen averaging $2. This variation is almost as wide as that found for all employees, skilled and unskilled, in the entire industry. Moreover, the distribution covering drafting employees is characterized by a series of small concentrations (see table 1), instead of one or more defined major concentrations; this also indicates considerable variation in rates and possibly also in skill within each of the occupations in the group.

Next to the drafting employees, the highest group average, namely, $1.105, was for the supervisory employees, who consisted of leaders, leading men, quartermen, foremen, etc. The average hourly earnings of the individual supervisors ranged from a low of 52 cents to a high of $2.341, an even wider range than that found for drafting employees. Unlike the drafting employees, however, there was a considerable concentration of the supervisors (82.4 percent) in the classes from 85 cents and $1.30, as may be seen from the distribution in table 1.

The skilled workers as a group averaged 88.7 cents an hour, or nearly 22 cents less than the average for supervisors. The average hourly earnings of individual employees in the skilled occupations ranged from 50 cents to $1.486, a spread considerably lower than was found for either drafting or supervisory employees. The skilled workers also differed from the drafting or supervisory employees in that their distribution (see table 1) had a single concentration (in the 85 and under 90 cents class), thus attesting to the relative homogeneity of this group. A more detailed examination of the skilled distribution shows 4.6 percent of the employees earning less than 70 cents an hour, and only 2.3 percent receiving $1.20 and over. Nearly four-fifths (78.9 percent) of these workers were paid 70 cents to $1.

The group average for the semiskilled workers was 69.2 cents, or 19.5 cents less than for skilled employees. The average of the individual workers in this group ranged from 40 cents to $1.269, with the distribution (see table 1) showing a concentration in the class of 65 cents and under 70 cents. The distribution also shows that only 1.2 percent of this group of employees earned under 50 cents an hour and 2.6 percent received 90 cents and over. Nearly three-quarters (74.2 percent) of the semiskilled workers earned from 60 to 80 cents an hour.

The unskilled workers as a group averaged 55.9 cents an hour. The range of the indivdual employees was from 31.8 cents to $1.003. An examination of the distribution in table 1 shows, however, that exactly nine-tenths received 40 and under 70 cents. Only 3.5 percent earned less than 40 cents, and only 6.5 percent received 70 cents and above. The outstanding groups were those receiving 50 and under 55 cents, and 60 and under 65 cents.

For apprentices, who as a group had the lowest average in the industry (49.5 cents), the earnings of the individual workers ranged from an average of 30.0 to 97.3 cents an hour. Less than 5 percent received under 35 cents and 15.2 percent were paid 60 cents and over. About four-fifths of the apprentices were found within the relatively narrow spread from 35 to 60 cents.

Hourly Basic Rates

In building vessels for the United States Navy, the private shipyards operate under a Government contract that contains a time

limit on completion, with definite fines or penalties specified for nonfulfillment of the time clause.[6] The necessity for economizing on time and labor costs[7] has encouraged the adoption of various methods of wage payments based on production. These methods of wage payments play an important part in the determination of average hourly earnings.

The methods of wage payment were found to vary from one yard to another and even within the same yard. Generally, the shipyards provided for an hourly basic or guaranteed rate [8] applying to all employees in a given occupation. In some occupations the workers were always on a straight-time basis, but in others they usually worked on a straight-piece-work basis or under some production-bonus plan. The production incentive plans were either on an individual or group basis,[9] and, with the exception of straight-time workers or those failing to exceed the set standards,[10] the employees were able to augment their guaranteed hourly earnings to a considerable extent.[11]

The average hourly earnings also include extra rates paid for overtime. Such punitive rates prevailed in every one of the shipyards covered in the survey. In all yards the rate was time and one-half for work done after 8 hours a day, with double time on Sunday and holidays in some of the yards. These overtime rates applied largely to hourly workers, thus excluding most of the salaried employees. However, it should be remembered that, in view of the fact that

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[6] The same situation usually exists in connection with the construction of merchant vessels.

[7] Before a contract is let by the Navy, the various private yards are asked to submit bids and the contract is awarded to the lowest responsible bidder. Furthermore, it is stipulated by an act of Congress that, while the first and alternate of each class of naval vessel is to be constructed in navy yards, it is at the discretion of the Secretary of the Navy to build other ships in the navy yards, if he deems the private bids to be excessive.

[8] Some occupations are paid on a daily, weekly, or monthly basis, but these rates are always reducible to an hourly basis.

[9] For example, a group of three employees, A, B, and C, are given a contract to do a certain piece of work, which the firm estimates should amount to $900 in labor cost. During the work on this contract the employees receive only their basic or guaranteed hourly rate plus any punitive rate for overtime worked. Upon the completion of the job, it is found that the labor cost amounted to $900. The $90 difference between the actual and estimated costs is then distributed in the form of a bonus to the three workers in the same proportion that their basic earnings are to the actual cost. Thus, if A received $400, B $300, and C $200 in basic earnings, they would be paid a bonus of $40, $30, and $20, respectively. On the other hand, if the actual cost exceeded the estimated cost, the workers would receive only their guaranteed rates for the time actually spent on the job.

On other types of incentive systems, only part of the savings are passed on to the employees, with the firm and the supervisors receiving the difference.

[10] Except in those instances where overtime was worked during the pay-roll period covered, in which case the actual earnings per hour would slightly exceed the basic or guaranteed hourly rate, due to the punitive rate paid for the extra hours.

[11] The computation of the actual earnings per hour was a relatively easy task in case of those paid on a straight-time or piece-work basis, as the wage settlement here occurred at the end of the pay-roll period covered. As regards production-bonus plans, however, the workers were paid at the close of the pay-roll period only their basic hourly rates. This is due to the fact that the extra earnings usually could be computed only upon the completion and final inspection of the job, which ordinarily exceeded the regular pay-roll period. Hence, it was necessary in such cases to obtain bonus earnings and total hours worked for periods ranging from 1 to 6 months for the individual employees, and these were then prorated in accordance with the number of hours worked during the pay-roll period covered, thus determining the extent to which the basic rates had been augmented.

naval contracts let during the N. R. A. provided for a maximum 36-hour week, overtime by the mechanical workers could be worked only in the construction and repair of merchant vessels.

As indicated in table 2, the average hourly earnings of all employees in private shipyards exceeded the average basic or guaranteed hourly rates by 5.4 cents. The difference was 2.5 cents for drafting employees, 3.9 cents for supervisory employees, 7.0 cents for skilled workers, 5.0 cents for semiskilled workers, 3.0 cents for unskilled workers, and 2.2 cents for apprentices. The difference for draftsmen was due almost entirely to punitive rates paid for overtime work to those on an hourly basis. The same was true to some extent of the lower supervisory employees working on an hourly basis. The augmented hourly earnings for the remaining groups of workers, on the other hand, may be accounted for almost entirely by the production-bonus plans. It should also be noted that for these groups the difference decreased with the degree of skill. This was due to the fact that the extent of participation varied directly with skill, as well as to the fact that the amount of additional earnings varied with the level of the basic or guaranteed rate. For skilled workers, the average addition to the basic rate amounted to 9.8 percent, for semiskilled to 7.8 percent, and for unskilled to 5.7 percent.

In view of these differences, it is interesting to compare the distribution of hourly basic or guaranteed rates with the distribution of average hourly earnings, as shown in table 1. Obviously, in each case the tendency was for a number of employees to shift from lower to higher wage classes. For the drafting employees, however, the bonus schemes made no essential difference in the distributions.

Among skilled workers the bonus schemes determined the pattern of actual earnings. Only 11.1 percent of the workers had guaranteed base rates of 90 cents or more, whereas 39.3 earned more than this amount. Ten percent earned $1.05 or more. There was an extreme concentration of base rates between 85 cents and 90 cents an hour, and a somewhat larger number in the 70 to 85 cents interval. This truncated distribution was not found in the actual hourly earnings, which ranged symmetrically from 65 cents to $1.10 an hour and then thinned out to as high as $1.50. Also, for semiskilled and unskilled workers as well as for apprentices, the range in average hourly earnings was wider than in hourly basic or guaranteed rates.

That average hourly earnings also exceeded the basic or guaranteed rates for the individual occupations in nearly all instances is shown in table 2. The difference was less than 5 cents in each of the occupations listed under drafting and supervisory employees. Of the 86 skilled occupations, 32 had a difference of less than 5 cents, 38 of 5 and under 10 cents, 13 of 10 and less than 15 cents, and 3 of over 15 cents. The latter 3 occupations were third electric welders (15.7

cents), special electric welders (16.9 cents), and first riveters (17.8 cents). Of the 43 occupations classified as semiskilled, two (power-plant firemen and miscellaneous semiskilled workers) had practically no difference, 25 showed a difference of less than 5 cents, 14 of 5 and under 10 cents, one of 10 and less than 15 cents, and one of 15 cents and over. The last two occupations were first holders-on (13.1 cents), and first and second watertight packers (15.6 cents). Among the 27 occupations listed as unskilled, 24 had a differential of under 5 cents and the remaining 3 of between 5 and 10 cents. Each of the different classes of apprentices showed a differential of less than 5 cents.

CHANGES IN BASIC RATES, AUGUST 1936 TO MAY 1937

In May 1937 the Bureau conducted another survey of hourly basic or guaranteed rates in private shipyards, in cooperation with the United States Maritime Commission. This made it possible to compare the hourly basic rates in August 1936 with those in May 1937 for the eight identical shipyards. However, the comparison has been limited to the mechanical workers, namely, skilled, semiskilled, unskilled, and apprentices.

For all mechanical workers combined, the increase in hourly basic or guaranteed rates between August 1936 and May 1937 amounted to 4.1 cents or 6.0 percent. The gains were 5.1 cents for skilled, 3.2 cents for semiskilled, 2.6 cents for unskilled, and 3.9 cents for apprentices. The extent to which these gains have resulted in shifts from lower to higher wage classes in the respective frequency distributions are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Private-Shipyard Employees by Hourly Basic Rates in August 1936 and May 1937*

Hourly basic rate	All workers [1]		Skilled workers		Semiskilled workers		Unskilled workers		Apprentices	
	August 1936	May 1937	August 1936	May 1937	August 1936	May 1937	August 1936	May 1937	August 1936	May 1937
30 and under 35 cents	0.4	[2]	-------	-------	-------	-------	0.2	-------	7.2	1.0
35 and under 40 cents	1.5	1.8	-------	-------	-------	-------	3.6	4.6	12.1	11.0
40 and under 45 cents	3.3	2.8	-------	-------	[2]	-------	8.1	6.3	23.9	23.0
45 and under 50 cents	4.2	2.8	-------	-------	2.0	0.2	11.1	8.3	16.3	11.0
50 and under 55 cents	13.8	10.6	[2]	-------	9.0	6.0	39.5	31.4	20.9	21.8
55 and under 60 cents	6.8	6.9	0.4	[2]	6.9	2.3	17.2	21.3	9.3	14.3
60 and under 65 cents	12.9	9.6	3.1	0.6	33.9	33.9	17.1	8.0	5.0	8.8
65 and under 70 cents	7.3	9.9	5.7	2.9	22.7	20.7	.6	16.0	.9	3.0
70 and under 75 cents	11.8	8.2	15.3	7.8	18.8	17.5	2.5	2.5	2.7	3.5
75 and under 80 cents	6.5	8.6	12.1	11.7	2.9	11.8	.1	1.6	1.6	2.4
80 and under 85 cents	7.8	6.9	15.3	13.4	1.7	1.9	-------	[2]	-------	.2
85 and under 90 cents	18.2	13.2	36.9	25.0	2.0	5.5	-------	-------	.1	-------
90 and under 95 cents	3.3	10.9	6.7	22.6	.1	.1	-------	-------	-------	-------
95 and under 100 cents	1.4	5.8	2.8	11.9	-------	.1	-------	-------	-------	-------
100 and under 105 cents	.3	1.0	.7	2.1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
105 cents and over	.5	1.0	1.0	2.0	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Exclusive of drafting and supervisory employees.
[2] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

According to table 4, 68 of the 73 occupations for which comparable data are available showed increases in average hourly basic or guaranteed rates between August 1936 and May 1937. These gains ranged from nearly one-half cent to more than 10 cents.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Basic Rates in Private Shipyards, August 1936 and May 1937*

Occupational group	Number of employees		Average hourly basic rate	
	August 1936	May 1937	August 1936	May 1937
All workers	25,324	22,624	$0.688	$0.729
Skilled workers	12,294	10,945	.817	.868
Semiskilled workers	4,759	4,560	.642	.674
Unskilled workers	7,208	6,070	.529	.555
Apprentices	1,063	1,049	.473	.512
Selected occupational groups:				
Anglesmiths	50	50	.845	.889
Anglesmiths' helpers (strikers)	119	105	.587	.567
Apprentices, first year	392	219	.392	.398
Apprentices, second year	366	416	.470	.479
Apprentices, third year	184	267	.537	.566
Apprentices, fourth year	121	147	.645	.680
Blacksmiths	81	91	.856	.891
Boilermakers	134	167	.836	.869
Bolters-up	753	374	.586	.666
Calkers and chippers, iron	704	646	.763	.807
Carpenters (shipwrights)	450	482	.822	.873
Chippers, foundry and other	114	100	.629	.679
Coppersmiths	178	147	.934	.998
Cranemen	336	285	.791	.824
Drillers	409	369	.675	.686
Electricians	901	663	.829	.877
Electricians' helpers	462	395	.529	.555
Erectors	202	187	.701	.771
Furnacemen, angle and bending	52	30	.795	.821
Gas cutters and burners	367	331	.770	.838
Handymen, blacksmith and forge	41	38	.640	.672
Handymen, chipping, calking, and packing	47	48	.618	.646
Handymen, coppersmiths' and pipefitters'	212	284	.642	.665
Handymen, electricians'	214	305	.620	.631
Handymen, mold loft and shipfitters'	323	231	.620	.644
Handymen, painting	96	138	.624	.641
Handymen, plate fabrication	51	19	.618	.625
Handymen, sheet metal	276	334	.626	.642
Handymen, welding	69	82	.623	.681
Handymen, woodworking	69	63	.625	.624
Helpers, blacksmith and forge	170	249	.604	.656
Helpers, boilermaking	109	101	.563	.582
Helpers, carpenters', joiners', and patternmakers'	80	61	.562	.589
Helpers, chipping, calking, and packing	65	37	.580	.577
Helpers, coppersmiths' and pipefitters'	875	890	.544	.572
Helpers, erectors'	98	92	.510	.545
Helpers and handymen, foundry	90	100	.585	.611
Helpers, mold loft	67	67	.549	.589
Helpers, painting	94	67	.510	.530
Helpers, plate fabrication	297	380	.562	.618
Helpers, sheet-metal	450	439	.539	.564
Helpers, shipfitters'	678	517	.546	.578
Holders-on	220	178	.626	.646
Hookers-on and chainmen	190	230	.562	.583
Joiners	292	268	.817	.858
Laborers	1,471	1,306	.466	.485
Loftsmen	134	161	.939	1.007
Machine operators, plate and pipe shops	106	90	.652	.751
Machinists	2,919	2,804	.828	.865
Machinists' handymen	438	448	.625	.658
Machinists' helpers	812	832	.552	.573
Molders and coremakers	116	109	.869	.902
Painters	669	666	.783	.840
Patternmakers	137	136	.968	.998
Pipe coverers and insulators	104	65	.807	.820
Pipefitters	639	563	.825	.873
Punchers and shearers	86	107	.711	.765

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Basic Rates in Private Shipyards, August 1936 and May 1937*—Continued

Occupational group	Number of employees		Average hourly basic rate	
	August 1936	May 1937	August 1936	May 1937
Selected occupational groups—Continued.				
Red leaders	70	23	$0.618	$0.721
Regulators	192	86	.695	.778
Riggers, yard and crane	173	216	.689	.757
Rivet heaters	186	193	.507	.525
Rivet passers	108	83	.511	.534
Riveters	203	155	.807	.856
Sheet-metal workers	951	917	.807	.852
Shipfitters	1,053	779	.809	.857
Ship riggers	191	123	.800	.861
Stage builders	250	283	.677	.715
Template makers	46	19	.863	.776
Tool and die makers and sinkers	69	64	.855	.898
Welders, electric	1,080	1,058	.813	.881
Welders, gas	63	52	.839	.872
Welders, tack	269	278	.679	.661
Wiremen	42	53	.647	.651

Weekly Hours

The N. R. A. code for the shipbuilding industry stipulated that 36 hours should be the maximum hours of work per week. With the invalidation of the code by the decision in the *Schechter case* in May 1935, most of the yards still had a number of uncompleted naval contracts containing the 36-hour maximum clause. Although naval contracts entered into after May 1935 allowed 40 hours a week as the maximum, it was regarded as impracticable for companies having both types of contracts to work one group of employees at 36 hours and another group at 40 hours. They therefore continued to restrict the working hours of all employees to 36 a week until the completion of the N. R. A. contracts.

In August 1936 the average weekly hours of all employees in private shipyards were 36.4. According to table 5, more than one-half (55.5 percent) worked exactly 36 hours and about one-sixth (16.6 percent) had a workweek of exactly 40 hours. Slightly more than 10 percent of the employees worked over 40 hours, but only 3 percent had a workweek of 48 hours and over.

The highest average hours per week, namely, 39.6, were found among drafting employees. More than six-tenths (60.7 percent) worked exactly 40 hours, about one-sixth (15.6 percent) had a workweek of exactly 36 hours, and another one-sixth (16.1 percent) worked 44 and under 48 hours. It should be noted that the drafting employees were not affected by the 36-hour maximum provision in the N. R. A. contracts.

The supervisory employees averaged 38.9 hours per week, with nearly one-third (32.9 percent) working exactly 36 hours, and more than four-tenths (43.5 percent) exactly 40 hours. There was also

a small concentration (7.5 percent) in the class of 44 and under 48 hours. Neither were these employees for the most part affected by the 36-hour maximum provision in the N. R. A. contracts.

The 36-hour maximum provision in the N. R. A. contracts covered mechanics and laborers. The extent to which this provision affected the hours of such employees may be seen from the data for skilled, semiskilled, unskilled, and apprentices. The workers in each of these groups averaged about 36 hours per week. In each group (see table 5) there was a preponderant proportion of employees working exactly 36 hours, the actual percentages being 62.5 for skilled, 58.5 for semiskilled, 50.6 for unskilled, and 67.3 for apprentices. The percentage of employees working 36 hours and under were, respectively, 76.5, 74.8, 68.6, and 84.1.

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Private Shipyard Employees by Average Weekly Hours in August 1936*

Weekly hours	All employees		Drafting employees		Supervisory employees	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	27,887	100.0	1,162	100.0	1,401	100.0
Under 24 hours	954	3.4	10	.9	12	.9
24 and under 32 hours	1,407	5.0	11	.9	18	1.3
32 and under 36 hours	1,740	6.3	32	2.8	48	3.4
36 hours	15,468	55.5	181	15.6	461	32.9
Over 36 and under 40 hours	701	2.5	22	1.9	39	2.8
40 hours	4,626	16.6	706	60.7	610	43.5
Over 40 and under 44 hours	844	3.0	3	.3	49	3.5
44 and under 48 hours	1,302	4.7	188	16.1	105	7.5
48 and under 56 hours	748	2.7	8	.7	52	3.7
56 hours and over	97	.3	1	.1	7	.5

Weekly hours	Skilled workers		Semiskilled workers		Unskilled workers		Apprentices	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	12,294	100.0	4,759	100.0	7,208	100.0	1,063	100.0
Under 24 hours	380	3.1	200	4.2	317	4.4	35	3.3
24 and under 32 hours	587	4.8	263	5.5	477	6.6	51	4.8
32 and under 36 hours	754	6.1	312	6.6	501	7.0	93	8.7
36 hours	7,680	62.5	2,780	58.5	3,651	50.6	715	67.3
Over 36 and under 40 hours	310	2.5	128	2.7	190	2.6	12	1.1
40 hours	1,449	11.8	596	12.5	1,133	15.8	132	12.5
Over 40 and under 44 hours	302	2.5	187	3.9	292	4.1	11	1.0
44 and under 48 hours	510	4.1	176	3.7	313	4.3	10	.9
48 and under 56 hours	288	2.3	107	2.2	289	4.0	4	.4
56 hours and over	34	.3	10	.2	45	.6	------	------

It will thus be seen from the foregoing that a considerable proportion of the mechanical workers in each group were employed over 36 hours. Most of these employees worked exactly 40 hours, and a

small proportion had a workweek as long as 48 hours and over. This was due to the fact that numerous employees were working on other than naval construction, thus being exempted from the 36-hour maximum provision in the naval contracts let during N. R. A. days.

The averages of the individual occupations in the mechanical trades (see table 2) reveal that there were 35 out of the 86 skilled occupations with average hours less than 36 per week. Of the 43 semiskilled occupations, 17 showed averages of less than 36 hours. Among the unskilled, less than 36 hours were averaged by 11 of the 27 occupations. For apprentices, all but the third-year group averaged less than 36 hours. On the other hand, of all the mechanical occupations, only 6 had average weekly hours of 40 and over. These consisted of such occupations as stationary engineers, substation operators, chauffeurs, watchmen, etc., who are ordinarily required to work longer hours than productive workers.

Weekly Earnings

The average weekly earnings of all employees in private shipyards amounted to $28.34 in August 1936. As seen from the distribution in table 6, exactly 60 percent of these workers earned between $20 and $35 a week. There were 18.6 percent with average weekly earnings of less than $20. The same percentage was paid $35 and under $50, thus leaving 2.8 percent receiving $50 and over.

As the drafting employees as a group showed the highest average hourly earnings and the longest average weekly hours, they also had the highest average weekly earnings, namely, $45.07. In view of the fact that the average weekly hours were virtually the same for each of the four occupations within the drafting group, the average weekly earnings of each occupation largely reflect the differences in respective average hourly earnings. Thus, junior draftsmen and tracers averaged $24.32 a week, which may be compared with $68 for chargemen. This wide spread is reflected in the distribution shown in table 6.

The supervisory employees, with average hourly earnings and weekly hours next to the draftsmen, show the second highest weekly earnings, averaging $42.95. First and second supervisors had higher average hourly earnings as well as somewhat longer average weekly hours than third and fourth supervisors. As a result, their weekly earnings were proportionately greater. For the entire group, 88.5 percent of the employees earned $30 and under $60, with 5 percent receiving less than $30 and 6.5 percent $60 and over.

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of Private-Shipyard Employees by Average Weekly Earnings in August 1936*

Average weekly earnings	All employees		Drafting employees		Supervisory employees	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	27,887	100.0	1,162	100.0	1,401	100.0
Under $10	489	1.8	1	0.1	2	0.1
$10 and under $15	1,073	3.8	8	.7	3	.2
$15 and under $20	3,620	13.0	23	2.0	4	.3
$20 and under $25	5,476	19.6	64	5.5	25	1.8
$25 and under $30	5,846	21.0	50	4.3	36	2.6
$30 and under $35	5,411	19.4	110	9.5	148	10.6
$35 and under $40	3,122	11.2	121	10.4	315	22.4
$40 and under $45	1,345	4.8	166	14.3	373	26.6
$45 and under $50	716	2.6	214	18.4	211	15.1
$50 and under $60	536	1.9	253	21.8	194	13.8
$60 and under $70	169	.6	105	9.0	54	3.9
$70 and over	84	.3	47	4.0	36	2.6

Average weekly earnings	Skilled workers		Semiskilled workers		Unskilled workers		Apprentices	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	12,294	100.0	4,759	100.0	7,208	100.0	1,063	100.0
Under $10	129	1.0	99	2.1	226	3.1	32	3.0
$10 and under $15	118	1.0	117	2.5	552	7.7	275	25.9
$15 and under $20	147	1.2	389	8.2	2,556	35.5	501	47.1
$20 and under $25	627	5.1	1,760	36.9	2,824	39.2	176	16.6
$25 and under $30	3,120	25.4	1,683	35.3	888	12.3	69	6.5
$30 and under $35	4,491	36.5	537	11.3	116	1.6	9	.8
$35 and under $40	2,519	20.5	128	2.7	38	.5	1	.1
$40 and under $45	761	6.2	37	.8	8	.1	------	------
$45 and under $50	283	2.3	8	.2	------	------	------	------
$50 and under $60	88	.7	1	(1)	------	------	------	------
$60 and under $70	10	.1	------	------	------	------	------	------
$70 and over	1	(1)	------	------	------	------	------	------

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

In the mechanical trades the average weekly earnings for the various groups also largely reflect differences in average hourly earnings, as the average weekly hours were practically the same in all groups. Average weekly earnings amounted to $32.11 for skilled workers, $24.85 for semiskilled, $20.29 for unskilled, and $17.55 for apprentices.

By far the great majority of the workers in each of these groups, however, were concentrated in relatively few wage classes. According to table 6, 82.4 percent of the skilled employees earned between $25 and $40, there being 8.3 percent in the classes under $25 and 9.3 percent in the classes of $40 and over. Among the semiskilled workers, 83.5 percent earned between $20 and $35, with 12.8 percent receiving under $20 and 3.7 percent $35 and over. Exactly 87 percent of the unskilled workers were paid between $15 and $30, 10.8 percent earning less than $15 and 2.2 percent $30 and over. There were 89.6 percent of the apprentices receiving between $10 and $25. Three percent earned under $10 and 7.4 percent $25 and over.

EFFECT OF SOCIAL-SECURITY PROGRAM ON ALMSHOUSES

A DETAILED study of the condition of the almshouses and their population, in Tennessee, was recently made by the University of Tennessee. Special attention was given to the effect upon these institutions of the social-security program; the report of this study [1] also gives similar data on this point obtained from other States.

It was found that between March 1, 1937 (when the social-security program was introduced in Tennessee), and November 15 of the same year 944 persons were discharged from county almshouses. Of these, 34 percent received old-age pensions, 1 percent blind pensions, and 6 percent children's aid. Altogether 389 former inmates were therefore receiving assistance under the social-security program. In addition, 762 persons still in these institutions were eligible for benefits. As the total almshouse population in November 1937 was 2,608, it is evident that the program of public assistance should materially reduce this population.

The returns from the other States indicated that the effect of the program was greatest where the almshouses were still caring for children, the mentally and physically disabled, and the aged, as well as for able-bodied indigents. In the States where special systems of care had been developed for certain of these classes the almshouses had gradually been transformed into infirmaries caring for chronic cases which would continue to need institutional care under the social-security program; the program had therefore had little effect in these States in reducing the number of almshouse inmates. In a number of cases social assistance had, however, hastened the trend toward this specialized use of the almshouses as infirmaries and had focused public attention on the problem.

Almshouses in Tennessee

The almshouse system in Tennessee dates from 1826, when a law was passed authorizing the counties to establish poorhouses. By 1880 the almshouse population numbered 1,136, from which point it rose

[1] University of Tennessee. School of Business Administration. Almshouse Policies and Almshouse Care of the Indigent in Tennessee. Knoxville, 1938.

to 1,812 in 1904, declining to 1,437 in 1923, as shown by the Federal census. The study on which the report under review is based revealed that, in November 1937, 81 counties had almshouses and were supporting in them 2,608 persons. This represented an increase of from 52.1 to 100.1 per 100,000 population in the 15-year period from 1923. This precipitate rise was tentatively attributed to the increase in State population, possibly incomplete reporting in earlier years, a large influx of needy into the almshouses during the depression (the data on length of almshouse residence indicated this), and lack of other institutional provision for dependent children and the mentally deficient or mentally defective in the State.

Whites constituted 71 percent and Negroes 29 percent of the total almshouse population in Tennessee on November 15, 1937. The smaller proportion of Negroes was explained by the refusal of 15 counties to admit them to the almshouse.

Nearly 3 percent of the inmates were under 10 years of age, and 5.5 percent were under 20. There were 1,125 persons (43.1 percent of the total) who were eligible, by reason of age, for old-age assistance.

The median length of residence at the county home of those who were inmates in November 1937 was 2.99 years, but 3.3 percent had been there 25.5 years or more, 28.5 percent from 5.5 to 25.5 years, and 67.5 less than 5.5 years.

Of 2,114 concerning whom data as to educational training was obtained, 46.5 percent had had no education whatever (because of mental deficiency, economic reasons, or other causes), 49.1 percent had had some grade-school education, and the remainder had gone either to high school or college.

Some county almshouses admitted neither the insane nor those with social diseases. As the majority had no such restrictions, the survey disclosed a wide variety of mental and physical afflictions among the inmates. Of 2,378 for whom data were obtained, only 295 (12.4 percent) had no defect; 35.3 percent were mental cases (this included 232 insane, 465 feebleminded, and 66 epileptics), and 52.3 had physical defects. Poverty led all other reasons for entering the almshouse, followed by feeblemindedness, insanity, and old age. Three percent of the inmates were dependent children, and 1.1 percent were there because their relatives would not support them.

Almshouse administration and conditions.—The keepers of the almshouses generally obtained their positions by political appointment or by competitive bidding. Of 81 keepers, 63 had previously been farmers, and of the others only one (a physician) could be said to have had training qualifying him for this particular kind of job. Their remuneration ranged from less than $20 per month to $456 a month.

Physical and social conditions in the institutions ranged from the very good to the deplorable.

In general, social conditions in Tennessee almshouses are bad. As the data will indicate, these poor conditions embrace improper segregation of the sexes and of the ill, overcrowding of rooms and beds in some instances, and very inadequate medical and nursing facilities. Furthermore, many of the buildings are old and in improper repair. There is, likewise, a very decided deficiency in the number of bathrooms and showers and in the number of sanitary toilets, either outdoor or indoor. The county almshouse, in many instances, illustrates the violation of all principles of decent, sanitary housing and of all the laws of health and sanitary science.

With respect to almshouse costs, calculations are difficult because of very inadequate records. A study of per capita appropriations indicates a range in appropriations from $700 to $26.58, with an average appropriation of $123.55 per capita per year. These figures, however, should not be construed as covering all the costs of the system. It is the writer's belief that the per capita costs would tend to average around $200 per inmate if the necessary data were available for the accurate calculation of almshouse costs.

Almshouses and public assistance in Tennessee.—At the time of the survey (November 1937), 389 persons had already been removed from the poorhouses, in order to receive some form of public assistance, and 762 others (626 aged, 53 blind, and 83 children) were eligible but had not yet been discharged. The removal of the latter group would reduce the November 1937 population by nearly 29 percent, and would, it was calculated, so reduce the almshouse population that 59 almshouses would be left with 15 or fewer inmates, and 74 with 25 or less. The investigators therefore foresaw the closing of a number of these county institutions.

As the survey indicated, there would remain 1,855 persons not eligible for old-age assistance. Many of these, however, were so ill physically or mentally as to need care of a quality superior to that which could be provided in private homes or which was provided in the county institutions.

The report recognized the possibility of an increase in the number of "marginal persons" in need of public support, through the raising of industrial standards by the unemployment-compensation and old-age pension acts and workmen's compensation laws. This, however, it was felt, should be more than counterbalanced—after a period of, say, 10 years—by the effects of the service to children and the emphasis on prevention of social problems at their source.

The report recommended:

1. Expansion of special facilities for care of insane and feeble-minded.

2. Reorganization of the better almshouses into institutions for care of chronic-illness cases.

3. Closing of almshouses with fewer than 10 inmates and coordination of the facilities of several counties in the support of regional hospitals.

4. Intensified work in prevention of spread of feeblemindedness, insanity, and in programs for rehabilitation.

Merely changing the machinery for the care of the poor will not solve the problems of insecurity. The solution of these problems is embedded deep in the land and its cultivation, in education, in public health and medical care, in regular work, in living wages, in social insurance, and, last but not least, in a state of social consciousness which holds that the disadvantaged are entitled to a standard of living compatible with health and decency.

Effect Upon Almshouses in Other States

Officials in other States were circularized in the attempt to ascertain what, if any, reduction in almshouse population had taken place as the result of the introduction of the social-security program. The replies were summarized in the report.

STATES REPORTING REDUCTIONS

A noticeable reduction was reported by 16 States.[2] Alabama stated that of a total almshouse population of 1,413 persons in 61 institutions in November 1935, 866, or 62 percent, were 65 years of age or over and thus eligible for old-age assistance. By August 1937, 45 of the almshouses had been closed, several more were closed between that time and the beginning of 1938, and others would be abolished were there other provisions for bedridden cases or those requiring institutional care. Many of the persons removed from the almshouses had been placed in private homes where their care was being paid for through old-age assistance grants.

Arizona had had few almshouses. It was, however, expected that old-age grants would result in the immediate removal of about 150 persons in the 3 counties maintaining combination hospitals and almshouses, and that ultimately the almshouse population would be "greatly reduced."

During the period from 1935 to February 1937 the number of county almshouses in Colorado had been reduced from 25 to 21 and the institutional population from 640 to 382, or slightly over 40 percent.

In Connecticut, although the almshouse population had been only slightly reduced, there were some 3,000 children receiving mother's aid, many of whom would undoubtedly be almshouse inmates in the absence of such aid.

The 21 county almshouses in the State of Florida in June 1937 had 305 aged inmates, of whom all but 53 (needing institutional care) were eligible for old-age assistance. The report of the State officials pointed out that the removal of these would leave only 155 persons in

[2] Alabama, Arizona, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Texas, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

all of the institutions and would undoubtedly result in the closing of a number of them.

Between January and December 1937, 10 of the county almshouses in Georgia were closed. Officials expressed the belief that within a few months there would remain only a very small number and that these would be devoted to the care of the few persons who were bedridden or could not be placed elsewhere.

The 18-month period, January 1936 to June 1937, saw the removal of 598 persons from Indiana county infirmaries and it was expected that an additional number would be eligible for old-age assistance after the eligibility age limit was lowered to 65 years in July 1938. There was no move toward closing the county institutions, as these already were operated more as infirmaries than almshouses and the need for a certain amount of such institutional care would remain.

In North Carolina there had been little reduction in almshouse inmates thus far, but it was expected that several almshouses would be closed altogether and the population in others would be somewhat reduced.

Ohio reported that "Federal-State aid to the aged has reduced the almshouse population to a very marked degree." Some 1,500 persons had been removed and were being cared for in private boarding homes licensed by the State. There remained in the State only a few county homes. The program of private home care for children had been developed over a number of years.

It was found in Oklahoma that 477 inmates were eligible for old-age assistance. Of these, however, only 277 were approved for discharge, as the others needed nursing care to an extent that could not be provided in private homes for the maximum $30 allowed under the State law. Only two county homes had been closed; the others were being encouraged to concentrate on the provision of hospital and infirmary care.

All the almshouses in Pennsylvania were abolished January 1, 1938, by the new State welfare law. Their duties were to be taken over by county institutional districts which would operate institutions providing modified hospital care for persons who could not be provided for otherwise. The officials reported that "the growth of old-age assistance, particularly since Federal participation, has made it possible for a considerable number" to leave the almshouses, and it was expected that a further reduction would take place after January 1, 1938, with the State providing assistance "on a reasonably adequate basis."

Some of the almshouses in Texas were reported to have closed since the inauguration of the social-security program.

Only three Utah counties had infirmaries, and these were mainly for the care of the indigent disabled. At the beginning of the security program, all of the eligibles were immediately removed, as were also

those who had been placed there during the depression because of lack of funds to care for them elsewhere. No figures were available as to numbers involved.

In Washington many elderly inmates had left the county homes in order to obtain the pension. Three of the 20 almshouses had been closed, and others were being transformed into institutions for care of bedridden and otherwise disabled.

Between October 1935 and July 1937 the number of county almshouses in West Virginia declined from 51 to 43, and the number of inmates from 1,330 to 1,082, or 18 percent.

A 15-percent reduction in almshouse inmates was reported by Wyoming.

STATES REPORTING LITTLE EFFECT

Very little reduction in almshouse population was reported in 16 States.[3] This was attributed, in California, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, Virginia, and Wisconsin, to the fact that the States had already reduced the almshouse population to those in need of institutional care. This had been done in California, Massachusetts, New York, and Utah, through a system of boarding homes for aged. In California, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, and Wisconsin, there were practically no children left in the almshouses when the security program went into effect, as they had been cared for under systems of mothers' aid and foster homes. The county almshouses of Virginia still contained a good many children, but they were being removed under the State child-welfare program.

The small reductions in Arkansas and Mississippi were attributed to the inadequate old-age assistance ($9.12 and $4.52 per month, respectively), and in Arkansas also to the fact that under the law of that State an inmate must leave the institution before applying and 45 days must elapse before he is eligible to receive the first payment.

In Idaho only 8 inmates had been discharged in order to receive the old-age pension. Illinois reported that there had been no reduction and it was not believed there would be any. In Maryland only 31 almshouse inmates had received old-age grants up to October 20, 1937, but officials were of the opinion that without the social-security program the almshouse population would have greatly increased. Only 147 of a total of 7,840 old-age beneficiaries in Michigan had come from institutions either public or private.

In South Dakota, of 344 inmates, 234 were over 65, but only 44 were granted pensions. Twenty-four of the 27 counties with almshouses expressed a definite intention to continue the operation of these institutions.

[3] Arkansas, California, Idaho, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Wisconsin reported that from 250 to 300 persons were transferred to the old-age assistance rolls in the first few months of the new program. However, recently the numbers entering the county homes had outnumbered those in the outward flow.

STATES WITH INCREASE IN ALMSHOUSE POPULATION

Several States noted an established or expected increase in almshouse population or the return of inmates discharged on pension. In Alabama, where a noteworthy record of placement in private homes had been achieved, it was expected that some so placed would desire to return, the families might tire of them, or the increasing infirmities of age would necessitate hospitalization. In Arkansas a few had already returned because they found it impossible to support themselves on the small old-age grants.

California reported that 1,241 (18.6 percent) of the old-age assistance cases closed had been admitted to public institutions; and Michigan reported 180 (2 percent) of such cases.

Increases in total almshouse population were reported in Delaware and New York. In Delaware the number of persons in the State Welfare Home [4] rose nearly 13 percent from 1933 to 1937, and there was in addition a waiting list of 35 persons.[5] New York had had a 50-percent increase in "public homes" population since the first old-age pension act went into effect in that State in 1931.

The New Jersey authorities expected an increase in the almshouse facilities, but for the purpose of providing hospital care, not as places for indiscriminate placement of indigents.

OTHER STATES

No information was available at the time of the survey for the States of Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, Montana, or South Carolina. In Kansas the officials expected many almshouses would be closed, and in Minnesota it was expected the almshouse population would be reduced "to some degree."

New Mexico had never had the almshouse system.

EXTENSION OF COVERAGE OF FRENCH SOCIAL INSURANCE

THE coverage of the French social-insurance system was extended by a decree law of June 14, 1938,[6] to include workers in commerce and industry earning up to 30,000 francs per year, without regard to the

[4] This home replaced the former county homes in 1933.

[5] Here again (although this is not pointed out in the report under review) this may have been due to small old-age pensions, which averaged $10.80 for the month of November 1937.

[6] Data are from report from Benjamin M. Hulley, American consul, Paris, dated June 24, 1938, and from Journal Officiel (Paris), June 15 and 17, 1938.

number of dependents. The previous limit, established by a law passed in August 1936,[2] was fixed at 21,000 francs for persons without dependent children and 25,000 francs for persons having at least one dependent child. The purpose of the 1938 amendment is to adjust the insurance system to the recent general increase in wages, which without this law would have resulted in many workers being eliminated from the system owing to the fact that their increased earnings exceeded the former maximum. In the explanatory statement accompanying the decree, it was said that, of the 365,000 metalworkers compulsorily insured in the region of Paris, more than one-fifth would have passed out of the system under the former limit. Managers of cooperatives and of chain-store branches are added to the classes covered by the insurance system. A new category was added to the agricultural system also, to take care of increased earnings among this class of workers.

Provisions relating to workers in commerce and industry.—The real wage on which the contribution is calculated includes cash wage, bonuses, and tips, but does not include family allowances. The maximum amount of the annual salary or wage on which calculation of contributions is made has been raised from 15,000 francs to 18,000 francs—i. e., 1,500 francs per month, 750 per fortnight, 380 per week, 72 per day, or 9.50 per hour.

Costs of medical appliances and pharmaceutical costs other than the purchase of medicines are repaid in accordance with the rates and under the conditions fixed by each fund, subject to the payment of 20 percent of these costs by the insured person. Reimbursement for the costs of renewing appliances may be granted upon receiving the assent of the medical authority. Cash sickness benefits are payable from the fourth instead of the sixth day of incapacity for work, and the maximum cash benefit is raised from 22 francs per day to 25 francs. Many of the formalities in qualifying for maternity benefits are relaxed, and transition from sickness benefits to invalidity benefits without interruption is facilitated by the new regulations. Orphans' allowances amounting to 240 francs per year are payable up to the age of 14 instead of to 13 as formerly, and may be continued up to the age of 16, for orphans who are apprenticed or in school or are invalids, unless in the latter case they are being cared for in hospitals at the expense of the State. The increase in the maximum salary limit was made effective July 1, 1938, for persons already in the system. For those not previously covered, but who will be included since the salary limit has been raised, the compulsory insurance will be effective October 1, 1938.

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[2] See Monthly Labor Review, July 1937 (p. 106).

Provisions relating to agricultural workers.—The law relating to agricultural workers established three classes of contributors, regardless of their earnings, within the limits of the system. The amendment establishes a fourth class consisting of men and women earning more than 12,000 francs. The annual contributions, divided equally between employers and employees, are 360 francs for men and women earning 12,000 francs or over, 240 francs for men and 192 francs for women earning less than this amount, and 144 francs for children under 16 years of age, apprentices, students, and persons of reduced working capacity, provided they do not earn less than 1,000 francs.

The previous law provided that tenant farmers (*métayers*) ordinarily working alone with assistance of members of their family, were subject to insurance if upon becoming tenants they leased less than 1,000 francs' worth of livestock. This limit is now raised to 10,000 francs. These farmers are responsible for the employers' and workers' contributions for workers paid by them and for members of their family who are compulsorily insured, although half of the employer contribution is repaid to them by the owner of the property, and the workers' contribution is deducted from wages.

Benefits are similar to those paid under the industrial and commercial employees' system, and sickness benefits are payable if the insured worker has paid an amount equal to at least 5 monthly contributions (formerly 6) in the 2 calendar quarters preceding sickness or accident (nonindustrial), or 10 monthly contributions in the year preceding the sickness. In cases of sickness or accident occurring in the first month of a calendar quarter, the contribution periods considered are those prior to the preceding quarter. If a person has been insured less than 6 months, two contributions instead of three are required to have been paid in the calendar quarter preceding sickness. In order to be entitled to maternity benefits the insured person or the husband of an insured person must have paid contributions equal in value to 9 monthly payments instead of 10 in the course of the 4 calendar quarters preceding childbirth, of which 2 monthly payments must have been in the first of these quarters.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

NATIONAL HEALTH CONFERENCE, JULY 1938 [1]

AN Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities was appointed by the President in August 1935, following the passage of the Social Security Act, "in order that the full benefits of the varied Federal program under the act's provisions might reach with minimum delay and maximum effectiveness the individual men, women, and children for whose aid and service the program was brought into existence." A conference called by the chairman of the committee, Miss Josephine Roche, was held in Washington, July 18 to 20, to consider a national health program included in the report of the Technical Committee on Medical Care. Present at the conference were State officials, representatives of the various governmental agencies directly interested in health questions, the medical profession, hospital and nurses' associations, social and welfare organizations, farm bureaus and federations, insurance organizations, the United States Chamber of Commerce, labor organizations, colleges, the press, various journals, and other organized groups.

The program was opened by Miss Roche, who outlined the health needs of the country as indicated by the studies of the Technical Committee, and stated that the estimates made by the Committee of "the total annual cost to Federal, State, and local governments of a reasonably adequate program for the expansion of public health services, maternal and child health services, hospital and clinical facilities, and for medical care for the lowest income groups, would reach up to $850,000,000 a year."

The Technical Committee's study of health and medical services in the United States indicates, it is stated in the report, that preventive health services for the Nation as a whole are grossly insufficient; that hospital and other institutional facilities are inadequate in many communities, especially in rural areas, and the financial support is both insufficient and precarious, especially for services to persons unable to pay for such care; that one-third of the population is receiving inadequate medical service or none: and that an even larger proportion of the population is suffering from economic burdens created

[1] United States. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. National Health Conference, Washington, D. C., July 18-20, 1938; Report and proceedings, Washington, 1938. Press releases, Washington, July 18-20, 1938.

by illness. The following recommendations for meeting deficiencies in the Nation's health services with reasonable adequacy were submitted by the Committee, together with estimates of the total costs to Federal, State, and local governments of carrying out the first three recommendations:

Recommendation I: Expansion of Public Health and Maternal and Child Health Services

The Committee recommends the expansion of existing cooperative programs under Title VI, Public Health Services, and Title V, Maternal and Child Health Services, of the Social Security Act.

A. Expansion of General Public Health Services (Title VI): Fundamental to an expanding program of preventive health services is the strengthening and extension of organized public health services in the States and in local communities. It is recommended that Federal participation in the existing cooperative program should be increased with a view toward equalizing the provision of general public health services throughout the Nation. The Committee further recommends that increasing Federal participation be utilized to promote a frontal attack on certain important causes of sickness and death for the control of which public health possesses effective weapons.

The Committee tentatively estimates that, at its peak, an adequate program of expanded public health service would require additional annual expenditures by Federal, State, and local governments of $200,000,000 for these purposes: Strengthening of public health organization; the eradication of tuberculosis, venereal diseases, and malaria; the control of mortality from pneumonia and from cancer; mental hygiene and industrial hygiene. The Committee recommends that approximately one-half of these increased funds be provided by the Federal Government.

B. Expansion of Maternal and Child Health Services (Title V); Included in this part of the recommended program are provisions for medical and nursing care of mothers and their newborn infants; medical care of children; services for crippled children; consultation services of specialists; and more adequate provisions for the postgraduate training of professional personnel. The objective sought in this phase of the Committee's proposed program is to make available to mothers and children of all income groups and in all parts of the United States minimum medical services essential for the reduction of our needlessly high maternal mortality rates and death rates among newborn infants, and for the prevention in childhood of diseases and conditions leading to serious disabilities in later years.

The Committee recommends a gradually expanding program reaching at least by the tenth year a total additional expenditure of $165,000,000, distributed as follows:

Maternity care and care of newborn infants	$95, 000, 000
Medical care of children	60, 000, 000
Services for crippled children	10, 000, 000

The Committee recommends that approximately one-half of the cost of the expanded program should be met by the Federal Government.

Recommendations (II, III, and IV) Covering Expansion of Medical Services and Facilities

The Committee has also explored the adequacy of services for the sick, the sickness experience of and the receipt of professional and hospital services by broad groups of the population. The Committee finds that the needs for diagnostic and therapeutic services to individuals are greatly in excess of such accom-

plishments as might be effected by a strengthened program of preventive services—important as such services may be as a first step. Indeed, it has been recognized in Recommendation I that certain important causes of sickness and death require for their eradication or control, the application of diagnostic and therapeutic procedures through services to individuals in need of such care.

The Committee finds that current practices in the provision of medical services and facilities fall far short of meeting these needs. It has taken account of personnel and facilities, financial support of services required by persons who are themselves unable to pay for the care they need, the sickness burdens of self-supporting persons, methods of paying for medical care and of assuring income for workers who are disabled by sickness. It finds that these needs warrant an expansion of medical services and facilities on a broader front than that contemplated in Recommendation I alone.

Recommendation II: Expansion of Hospital Facilities

The Technical Committee has made a special study of deficiencies in existing hospital and other institutional facilities. It is impressed with the increasing part which hospitals play, year after year, in the health and sickness services. Without adequate hospitals and clinics, it is impossible to provide many of the important services which modern medicine can furnish.

The Committee finds hospital accommodations and hospital organization throughout the country ill-adapted to the varying needs of people living under different social, economic, and geographical circumstances. In hospitals offering general care, the percentage of beds supported by patients' fees is out of proportion to the ability of the population served to pay, hence many general hospital beds are empty a large part of the time. Conversely, there are too few low-cost or free beds to satisfy the needs. By far the greater majority of these are found in our large metropolitan centers. There are wide areas—some 1,300 counties—having no registered general hospitals; others are served only by one or two small proprietary institutions. Only in large city hospitals have out-patient clinics been developed to any considerable extent; governmental tuberculosis sanatoria and mental institutions tend to be overcrowded or are otherwise restricted in funds or personnel for rendering the community service which they should be equipped to give.

The Committee recommends a 10-year program providing for the expansion of the Nation's hospital facilities by the provision of 360,000 beds—in general, tuberculosis, and mental hospitals, in rural and in urban areas—and by the construction of 500 health and diagnostic centers in areas inaccessible to hospitals. These new hospitals or units would require financial assistance during the first three years of operation. Special Federal aid for this purpose is suggested.

Averaged over a 10-year period, the total annual cost of such a program, including special 3-year grants for maintenance of new institutions, is estimated at $146,050,000 divided as follows:

	Construction	*3-year maintenance*
General and special	$63, 000, 000	$21, 600, 000
Tuberculosis	15, 000, 000	6, 000, 000
Mental	32, 500, 000	7, 800, 000
Diagnostic centers	150, 000	----------
Total average annual cost	110, 650, 000	35, 400, 000

The Committee recommends that approximately one-half of this total annual cost be met by the Federal Government. It points out that a hospital constuction program should not be undertaken unless there is a concurrent program to give continuing aid toward the cost of free services, such as is included in Recommendation III.

Recommendation III: Medical Care for the Medically Needy

The Committee is impressed with the evidence now available that one-third of the population which is in the lower-income levels is receiving inadequate general medical service. This applies to persons without income and supported by general relief and to those being supported through old-age assistance, aid for dependent children, or work relief, and also to families with small incomes. These people are doubly handicapped. They have higher rates of sickness and disablement than prevail among groups with larger incomes, and they have lesser capacities to buy and pay for the services they need. Current provisions to assist these people—though generously given in many State and local governments by voluntary organizations and by professional practitioners—are not equal to meet the need.

The Committee recommends that the Federal Government, through grants-in-aid to the States, implement the provision of public medical care to two broad groups of the population: (1) To those for whom local, State or Federal governments, jointly or singly, have already accepted some responsibility through the public-assistance provisions of the Social Security Act, through the work-relief programs, or through provision of general relief; (2) to those who, though able to obtain food, shelter, and clothing from their own resources, are unable to procure necessary medical care. It is estimated that, on the average, $10 per person annually would be required to meet the minimum needs of these two groups for essential medical services, hospitalization, and emergency dentistry. This part of the program might be begun with the expenditure of $50,000,000 the first year and gradually expanded until it reaches the estimated level of $400,000,000 which would be needed to provide minimum care to the medically needy groups. The Committee recommends that one-half of the total annual costs be met by the Federal Government.

Recommendation IV: A General Program of Medical Care

The Committee directs attention to the economic burdens created by sickness for self-supporting persons. There is need for measures which will enable people to anticipate and to meet sickness costs on a budget basis.

No conclusion has emerged more regularly from studies on sickness costs than this: The costs of sickness are burdensome more because they fall unexpectedly and unevenly than because they are large in the aggregate for the Nation, or, on the average, for the individual family. Except in those years when unemployment is widely prevalent, sickness is commonly the leading cause of social and economic insecurity. Without great increase in total national expenditure, the burdens of sickness costs can be greatly reduced through appropriate devices to distribute these costs among groups of people and over periods of time.

The Committee recommends consideration of a comprehensive program designed to increase and improve medical services for the entire population. Such a program would be directed toward closing the gaps in a health program of national scope left in the provisions of Recommendations I and III. To finance the program, two sources of funds could be drawn upon: (*a*) General taxation or special

tax assessments, and (*b*) specific insurance contributions from the potential beneficiaries of an insurance system. The Committee recommends consideration of both methods, recognizing that they may be used separately or in combination.

Such a program should preserve a high degree of flexibility, in order to allow for individual initiative and for geographical variations in economic conditions, medical facilities, and governmental organization. It should provide continuing and increased incentives to the development and maintenance of high standards of professional preparation and professional service. It should apportion costs and timing of payments so as to reduce the burdens of medical costs and to remove the economic barriers which now militate against the receipt of adequate care.

Planning for a program of medical care of a magnitude to serve the entire population essentially must be approached as an objective to be fully attained only after some years of development. The role of the Federal Government should be principally that of giving financial and technical aid to the States in their development of sound programs through procedures largely of their own choice.

Recommendation V: Insurance against Loss of Wages during Sickness

The Committee recognizes the importance of assuring wage earners continuity of income through periods of disability. A disability-compensation program is not necessarily part of a medical-care program, but the cost of compensating for disability would be needlessly high if wage earners generally did not receive the medical care necessary to return them to work as soon as possible.

Temporary-disability insurance can perhaps be established along lines analagous to unemployment compensation; permanent-disability (invalidity) insurance may be developed through the system of old-age insurance.

Costs of the Proposed Program

The maximum annual cost to Federal, State and local governments of Recommendations I, II, and III (with duplications eliminated) is estimated at about $850,000,000. This figure is the estimated total annual cost at the full level of operation within a 10-year period, and is presented primarily as a gauge of need.

The estimated total includes (1) $705,000,000—the additional annual expenditures for certain general health services to the entire population, and for medical services to limited groups of the population (the public-assistance and otherwise medically needy groups)—which should be reached within a 10-year period; and (2) $145,000,000—the approximate average annual cost of hospital construction and special grants-in-aid in the 10-year program proposed under Recommendation II. It is suggested that the Federal share of this amount would be approximately one-half.

Recommendation IV is presented primarily as a more economical and effective method of making current expenditures for medical care, though it also makes provision for the medical care of persons who are not now receiving even essential services. An adequate general program of medical care is proposed in the form of alternative arrangements which may cost up to a mximum of $20 per person a year—i. e., no more than is already being spent through private purchase of medical care. Annual aid from Government funds would be necessary to provide services for the care of the medically needy as proposed in Recommendation III and for the parts of Recommendation I which are included in the broad program set forth in Recommendation IV.

The Committee calls attention to the fact that, in some important respects, the five recommendations present alternative choices. However, the Committee is of the opinion that Recommendations I and II should be given special emphasis

and priority in any consideration of a national health program more limited in scope than that which is outlined in the entire series of recommendations.

The Technical Committee on Medical Care is firm in its conviction that, as progress is made toward the control of various diseases and conditions, as facilities and services commensurate with the high standards of American medical practice are made more generally available, the coming decade, under a national health program, will see a major reduction in needless loss of life and suffering—an increasing prospect of longer years of productive, self-supporting life in our population.

The Conference itself did not take action upon the recommendations presented nor adopt resolutions looking toward definite action. The chairman in her concluding remarks stated that the National Health Conference had not been asked to endorse formally any of the specific recommendations of the Technical Committee. She said, however, that it was hoped that the Conference had contributed to a better understanding of national needs in the field of health and medical care and to the formulation of policies which will enable the medical and other professions, private organizations, Federal, State, and local agencies, and individual citizens to cooperate to meet these needs. "It will be noted," Miss Roche said, "that none of the recommendations of the Technical Committee contemplates a Federally operated program, but on the contrary, the underlying purpose of each of these recommendations has been to use Federal funds to equalize the financial burdens among the States, to stimulate local planning and local action, to develop for all of the people in all parts of the country opportunities for health and medical care which now are enjoyed by the more fortunate groups of our people."

Labor Productivity

LABOR PRODUCTIVITY IN THE GROWING OF CORN

THE number of hours per acre required in the production of corn declined from an average of 28.7 during the period 1909–13 to an average of 22.5 during the period 1932–36. The decline in hours required per 100 bushels was from 109 to 90. The total labor used in the production of corn declined during the same interval from 2,898,000,000 to 2,276,000,000 man-hours per year. Assuming about 3,000 man-hours per year per worker, the decline in equivalent full-time employment was more than 200,000 workers, although a small part of this decline was due to a slight reduction in the average annual amount of corn produced. In the meantime, the total population greatly increased. These estimates are part of a recent survey of technology and labor requirements in the production of corn, which was conducted by the National Research Project of the Works Progress Administration in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture and certain State agricultural agencies.[1]

The importance of the corn crop is evidenced by the fact that in 1935 corn accounted for about 30 percent of the country's land in crops. Although corn ranked only fifth as a cash crop, this is not an indication of its relative importance. Corn is used mainly as feed for livestock and only a small part of the crop is sold directly for cash. More than half of the world's output of corn is ordinarily produced in the United States. Argentina, which grows the next largest crop, produces only about one-ninth as much as the United States. Detailed estimates of the acreage in corn, the yield per acre, the hours required per acre, the hours per 100 bushels, and the total labor requirements, in the principal corn-growing areas of the United States from 1909 to 1936, reveal wide regional variations. There was, however, a Nation-wide trend over this period in the direction of a reduction of the hours required per acre and, with the exception of the eastern cotton area, a trend in the direction of fewer hours required per 100 bushels, as shown in the following table.

[1] Works Progress Administration. Changes in Technology and Labor Requirements in Crop Production: Corn. By Loring K. Macy, Lloyd E. Arnold, and Eugene G McKibben. (Report No. A-5.)

Total Labor Used in Producing Corn in Major Areas of the United States, 1909–36

Year	United States	Corn area	Winter wheat area	Spring wheat area	Western dairy area	Eastern dairy area	Middle eastern area	Eastern cotton area	Delta cotton area	Western cotton area
	Acres in corn [1] (millions)									
1909–13	101.0	28.6	15.5	2.8	5.7	2.4	12.3	7.8	6.3	10.3
1917–21	103.1	28.8	13.4	4.3	7.2	2.5	12.6	9.6	6.9	8.1
1927–31	101.0	28.4	16.2	6.1	7.8	2.0	10.3	7.9	5.2	7.8
	Yield per acre [1] (bushels)									
1909–13	26.0	38.2	19.2	23.5	33.8	36.8	22.1	13.4	17.3	16.0
1917–21	27.2	38.5	21.8	27.0	33.6	41.7	24.0	14.0	16.7	17.1
1927–31	24.7	34.9	22.5	18.4	29.8	36.0	21.0	12.0	15.3	17.1
	Hours per acre [2]									
1909–13	28.7	22.0	12.8	13.4	31.7	59.4	46.6	41.3	42.5	28.8
1917–21	27.6	20.6	11.8	13.0	28.7	54.6	45.3	40.2	41.1	26.4
1927–31	23.3	17.9	10.3	10.7	24.0	47.8	43.3	38.6	38.5	22.8
1932–36 [3]	22.5	16.9	10.1	9.8	23.2	46.2	43.0	37.9	37.6	21.4
	Hours per 100 bushels									
1909–13	109	57	67	56	95	160	210	310	246	179
1917–21	102	54	54	48	86	131	190	285	247	153
1927–31	93	52	45	58	82	134	208	320	250	132
1932–36 [4]	90	49	44	53	79	129	206	315	244	124
	Total labor (millions of hours)									
1909–13	2,898	629	198	38	181	143	573	322	268	297
1917–21	2,842	593	158	56	207	136	571	386	284	214
1927–31	2,354	508	167	65	187	96	446	305	200	178
1932–36 [3]	2,276	480	164	60	181	92	443	299	196	167

[1] 5-year average acreages and yields were computed from detailed data collected by U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

[2] Estimates based on former labor-requirement studies and the National Research Project Farm Survey data. More detailed data for areas and for principal corn-growing States are shown in appendixes of the study here summarized.

[3] Based on 1927–31 acreage, to eliminate as far as possible the effect of drought and A. A. A.

[4] Based on 1927–31 average yield, to eliminate effect of drought during the years 1932–36.

The principal factors that have caused changes in labor requirements are those connected with the mechanization of planting, cultivating, and harvesting corn. Labor requirements per acre have been lowered to some extent by shifts in the locations of the country's corn acreage, notably an increase in corn acreage in spring wheat and range areas. In these areas, corn has become increasingly important, partly as a result of the development of varieties of corn that mature in a short season and in a cool climate. The development of new varieties of corn is an illustration of another type of factors affecting labor requirements. These factors include not only the breeding of improved varieties but also the development of more efficient methods of soil management and the introduction of means of com-

bating corn diseases and pests. These latter changes, which are grouped under the general term "agronomic", have been perhaps mainly significant in preventing deterioration of corn varieties and of soils and in counteracting the effects of diseases and pests. These agronomic changes are thus, in a sense, negative in their significance in that they have checked the operation of forces which otherwise would have tended to increase labor requirements. But greater interest in improved soil management and in better varieties of seed corn afford indications of a probable reduction in labor requirements in the future. Another potential factor of particular importance is the mechanization of corn harvesting. A two-row picker-husker machine now in use makes possible the elimination of more than 50 percent of the present harvest labor requirements per acre in the Corn Belt. In 1937 manufacturers were unable to meet in full the demands of farmers for this type of harvesting equipment.

The progress of technological improvements and of labor productivity in the growing of corn has contributed to the general reduction in the amount of agricultural employment, particularly in the case of workers who depend largely on seasonal types of work. If the volume of production and the amount of employment required in other branches of farming could be sufficiently expanded to absorb the labor previously required in the growing of corn, these developments would have little economic or social significance except insofar as they involve the shifting of workers from one type of work or one area to other types of work and other sections of the country. The developments in corn growing and other branches of agriculture would create no particularly serious problems other than in connection with the shifting of workers, if nonagricultural production and employment could be so expanded as to employ the labor displaced in agriculture. The gravity of the problem for nonagricultural as well as agricultural workers lies mainly in the fact that the workers displaced from corn growing are added to the already large labor reserves, industrial as well as agricultural, while at the same time a large expansion of total production and employment would be required to meet even the moderate needs of both agricultural and industrial workers.

WORK HISTORY OF FORMER ROCHESTER HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

THE majority of the 5,266 former students of the Rochester, N. Y., high schools who were covered in a survey in 1936 [1] came from families in which the fathers were skilled or semiskilled industrial and commercial employees. The students included in the study entered high school in September 1924, 1927, and 1930, and January 1925, 1928, and 1931. The college preparatory course was the course taken by the largest number of the students. However, the percentages taking that course had declined from 37.3 and 44.7 to 28.2 and 29.6, while the percentages registered in the commercial and industrial-art courses rose from 14.6 to 21.9 for the commercial course and from 3.5 to 10.4 for the industrial-arts course. The majority of the students reported they had voluntarily selected their respective courses.

Of the students covered, 48.4 percent had graduated; 28.2 percent had completed 1 year's work; 12.1 percent, 2 years' work; and 6.7 percent, 3 years' work.

The number of students leaving school varied with economic conditions and with the years of school completed. In years of prosperity students in all grades left school for employment. In years of depression students in the first 2 years of school left in larger numbers than those in the last 2.

The reasons for leaving school were obtained both from the school record cards and the students themselves. From the following table it will be noted that the school cards indicated far more leaving school on account of unsatisfactory grades than did the reports from the students themselves.

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[1] Rochester Civic Committee on Unemployment. A Study of the Economic and Social Status of 6,000 Former Students of Rochester High Schools. Prepared by Harold S. Rand, with the assistance of the Works Progress Administration. Rochester, N. Y., 1937; 3 vols.

The number of schedules prepared directly from school record cards was 8,470; the number of interviews completed was 5,260.

Reasons for Leaving School

Reason for leaving	Percent of students based on—	
	School records	Personal interviews
Grades unsatisfactory	24.0	2.9
Not interested	10.3	22.6
Financial necessity	39.0	52.7
Left town	7.3	1.8
Truant	.2	.3
Expelled	1.8	.5
Illness	2.5	4.6
Over age	14.9	----
Labor assistance	----	14.6
Total	100.0	100.0

Those high-school graduates who had gone on into college mainly followed the fine arts, science, and engineering courses. With the exception of the collegians, the greater number of the students who had taken additional training had either 6 months to 1 year or 3 years and over of such training, business-school courses requiring 1 year, and apprenticeship, trade schools, and nursing 3 years or more.

Sixty-five percent of the students without educational or vocational training other than high school were employed at the time the survey was made, while 74 percent of the former high-school students who had had further training had jobs.

The percentage of housewives among the students who did not graduate was 8.7; the corresponding percentage among graduates was 4.2.

In those cases in which the employment secured could be compared to the training received, it was disclosed that 59.0 percent of high-school graduates obtained jobs related to their training, as compared to 50.6 of the nongraduates.

Of the 2,316 out of the 5,266 students interviewed who took further training after leaving high school, approximately 27 percent attended college and 73.1 percent took specific vocational training. The distribution of those taking this latter training was as follows: Apprenticeship, including nursing, 8.8 percent; business school, 38.4 percent; trade school, 18.8 percent; correspondence or extension courses, 28.9 percent; and normal school, 5.1 percent.

The time elapsing between the time the student leaves school and the time he receives employment varies with the curve of business activity. In the earliest classes studied, 58.6 percent and 53.7 percent of those interviewed had found work within 3 months of leaving school. For the last two classes studied, 30.9 percent and 27.6 percent, respectively, had found work within 3 months' time, while 31.3 percent and 28.3 percent, respectively, had not yet been employed at the time of the survey. The survey was made from 1 to 2 years after these people in the classes entering in September 1930 and January 1931 had left school.

More than 66 percent of the students taking commercial courses in high school and in business school after leaving high school obtained jobs in the business field. Those who had taken high-school commercial training and business-school training were most successful in getting placed in commercial fields.

When the survey was made in 1936, slightly over 31 percent of the classes entering high school in September 1930 and 38.3 percent of the classes entering in January 1931 had never been employed. For the whole group interviewed, 26.7 percent were jobless. A substantial number of those interviewed who had jobs were not satisfied with the kind of work they were doing.

The great impediment in getting jobs as disclosed in this survey is that both graduate and nongraduate high-school youth have had no experience in business or industry.

The demand that the schools train pupils for employment was almost unanimous, and a closer correlation between the school and industry was considered advisable.

In the report of the survey the importance of homes which satisfy the physical and social desires of young people is emphasized. The discontent and despair among jobless youth seems to be in direct relation to home conditions. A student's high-school years are affected by parental opinions as to the value of his education or his value as a wage earner.

The mental outlook of jobless young people is apparently determined by their ability to maintain their own prestige and appear equal to their fellows.

The study shows that the average worker today attaches certain social values to different kinds of employment. For example, the great majority of the girls or women interviewed on this matter regarded housework as a menial occupation, and factory work was considered inferior to office work.

A city-wide demand for additional free educational facilities was found among the young persons interviewed, and night schools, educational classes, and lectures were designated as the means to secure this further training.

Industrial and Labor Conditions

LIVING CONDITIONS OF LOW-INCOME FAMILIES IN BOGOTÁ, COLOMBIA, 1936

AN analysis of the plane of living of 225 working-class and other low-income families of Bogotá, Colombia, in September 1936, showed that 65.6 percent of their expenditures went for food, 17.9 percent for housing, 6.2 percent for fuel, 1.3 percent for clothing, and 9.0 percent for miscellaneous items. The Division of Research and Statistical Coordination of the Comptrollership General of Colombia made the investigation by means of household account books and daily personal visits of its representatives.[1]

Families living in various parts of Bogotá were selected for this study. In general these families were not large, for though 1 had 10 children, 9 had none at all and 52 had only 1 child each. The average family consisted of 5.2 persons, the equivalent of 4 adult males. The composition of the family may be seen from the fact that for 100 families there were 85 fathers, 98 mothers, 139 sons, 140 daughters, 11 male and 37 female relatives, and 11 female servants. In the actual group of 225 families were found 530 males and 642 females, a total of 1,172 persons.

The basis of distinction between skilled and unskilled workers used in the investigation was the amount of daily wage received; those persons receiving 1 peso and less were regarded as unskilled and those receiving more than 1 peso per day were considered skilled. Under this classification, 116 men and 6 women were said to be skilled and 111 men and 104 women unskilled workers. Occupational groups represented included artisans, persons engaged in small commercial undertakings, salaried employees, workers in construction, transportation, and graphic arts, factory workers, and laborers; some women were found in all the occupational groups except transportation and construction workers.

In the 225 families 185 fathers, 66 mothers, 42 daughters, 39 sons, and 8 male and 3 female relatives were wage earners; yet slightly more than two-thirds (67.1 percent) of the average family income was produced by the fathers and a little more than one-tenth (10.3 percent)

[1] Colombia. Contraloria General. Anales de Economia y Estadística. (Bogotá), vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 1–82 El costo de la vida de la clase obrera en Bogotá, by Paul Hermberg.

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by the mothers. The other sources of income in descending order were sons, daughters, income other than wages, male relatives, and female relatives. As the wage inquiry covered only 1 day, little income except that from wages was reported, and some of those reporting were casual workers. The average daily income from all sources for all families reporting was 1.69 pesos.[2] Only 7 families had daily income of less than 60 centavos and only 7 had more than 3.50 pesos, while 170 (75 percent) had from 70 centavos to 2.10 pesos.

The highest daily wage of any worker was 3.33 pesos paid to a railway worker, and the lowest wage paid to a male worker was 20 centavos for a worker in graphic arts; for women, the highest daily wage was 2 pesos for women in small commercial enterprises, and the lowest, 10 centavos to laundresses. Men classed as skilled workers averaged 1.65 pesos and as unskilled workers 80 centavos per day; unskilled woman workers earned an average of 55 centavos and the number of skilled woman workers was not sufficiently large to justify quoting an average.

More than three-fourths (77 percent) of the families spent during the month from 24 to 60 pesos, with the mode about 40 pesos. The average monthly expense per family was 47.53 pesos and per equivalent adult male 11.98 pesos.

The average monthly purchases per equivalent adult male of some of the more important items of food were as follows: Potatoes, 9.9 kilos;[3] bread and other cereals, 6.7 kilos; meat (the cheapest cuts) and fish, 3.5 kilos; legumes and similar vegetables, 1.74 kilos; milk, 4 liters;[4] and 5.6 eggs. Very little butter or cheese was purchased. The largest items of expense for food per equivalent adult male per month were: 82 centavos for potatoes; 80 centavos for meat (cheap cuts of beef or lamb); 78 centavos for bread; 41 centavos for chicha (a beverage); and 39 centavos for milk.

Because of the difficulty of reporting as to either quantity or price, the report does not include greens nor beer and soft drinks, except to state they were purchased in considerable quantities. Chicha, a native drink, to the amount of 5.8 liters per equivalent adult male per month, was purchased by families included in this study; for the entire population of Bogotá the average was 9.1 liters. The 900 grams of chocolate per equivalent adult male purchased per month were, according to the report, supposed to be used largely in the preparation of the popular mealtime drink of the people. Nearly five times as much brown sugar as ordinary sugar was purchased by the families covered by this study.

The monthly costs for housing, whether for rent or installments paid toward the purchase of the property, ranged from less than 3 pesos to about 36 pesos, though only 5 families paid more than 25 pesos and the

[2] Average exchange rate of peso (100 centavos) for September 1936=56.5 cents.

[3] Kilo=2.2046 pounds.

[4] Liter=1.06 quarts.

average was 8.50 pesos. Eight-ninths of the families paid less than 15 pesos and 75 percent of them paid from 4 to 11 pesos per month.

Less than one in five of the families lived in separate, detached houses. Nearly five-sixths of them lived in rented quarters, and about an equal number of the others lived either in homes of their own or in dwellings furnished by their employers. Most of the families occupied one-story tenement houses in which, according to the report, frequently lived 20 and even 40 families in one room each, with one toilet and one water faucet for the entire house. More than half of the dwellings had floors of brick or beaten earth. The walls were usually of adobe or brick and were whitewashed every 2 or 3 years. Some walls were papered. Partitions separating one family from another were frequently of wood or tin. The houses had no chimneys. Only about one dwelling in four had windows upon the street. Nearly three-fourths (72 percent) of the houses had light and water, but almost one-fourth (23 percent) lacked both.

More than two-thirds of the families covered by the report lived in only one room each, with an average of 4.9 persons to the room; for all the families the average was 3.6 persons per room. One family out of 100 had a room for each person. Only 8 families per 100 had dwellings of more than 2 rooms. The rooms averaged about 90 square feet of floor space and were about 8 to 10 feet in height. The report states that in many instances a family lived, cooked, and slept in the same room. Sometimes a small fireplace (*hornilla*) for the use of a single family was to be found beside the entrance to the room, but in a corner of the court, under a corrugated iron roof, was a community kitchen, consisting of a row of these small fireplaces, for a number of families. In another corner, or in the center of the court, was generally a laundry. In many cases, however, there was no water. The average monthly fuel bill per family was 2.92 pesos, of which charcoal at an average monthly cost of about 1.70 pesos was the chief item. Other fuel consisted of small quantities of wood, fuel alcohol, fuel oil, gasoline, petroleum, and coal.

The average family had furniture valued for this study at 24 pesos. Ten families are reported to have had no beds at all, and there were only 441 beds for the total of 1,172 persons covered in this study. Persons without beds usually slept upon various sorts of mats upon the brick or adobe floors.

The largest single item in the miscellaneous-expense group was transportation to and from work which, at 2 centavos per ride, amounted to a monthly average of 93 centavos per family. Another relatively large item of expense was that for soap, of which an average of 2.2 kilos per family were bought during the month at a cost of 53 centavos. Little was expended for books, but for periodicals the average family spent 34 centavos during the month, made up chiefly of daily newspapers at 5 centavos and what is described in the report

as "special publications for workers" at 2 centavos. The movies furnished the chief diversion. Only one in five of the 329 children from 7 to 15 years of age were in school. Among the wage earners 40 of the 127 men and 8 of the 110 women belonged to occupational associations and paid dues to them; these dues showed wide variation, but averaged 7 centavos per family for all families. A few families were buying sewing machines on the installment plan. Of the 24 persons classified as servants 13 were reported as receiving no remuneration other than food and lodging; the report states that they were probably female relatives assisting with the housework. The monthly wage for the 11 servants receiving any cash ranged from 1.50 to 4 pesos.

OBLIGATORY LABOR IN GERMANY[1]

A GERMAN decree was issued on June 22, effective July 1, 1938, the purpose of which is to "guarantee the supply of labor for State tasks of particular importance." In broad terms the decree empowers the State employment service and unemployment insurance office to withdraw workers from their regular jobs and occupations and assign them to different work or to training in different occupations.

Prior to this decree, several other orders limiting the free choice of occupation had been issued in the metal and building industries, "in order to guarantee the supply of labor" for these industries. The new decree, however, applies to all German inhabitants, making no distinction as to occupation or profession, age, sex, or race. Theoretically, therefore, any German may be drafted to any assignment which the Government considers desirable.

The measure also provides that German employees may be required to undergo specified vocational training. The problem of retraining workers has been latent in Germany for the last two decades, but has become increasingly urgent under national socialism, on account of the heavy Government demands on certain industries, such as the building and the iron and steel industries, resulting in a labor shortage in those industries. The new decree formally legalizes compulsory retraining, which in the past was possible only to a very limited extent.

Persons drafted under the decree may not be discharged from their original occupation during the time of their conscription. The time spent on compulsory labor is to be considered merely leave of absence without pay from their original occupation; this provision insures maintenance of social-insurance status of the workers concerned.

The president of the Reich office of employment service and unemployment insurance, in a statement published recently in the Reichsarbeitsblatt, offers an official interpretation of the new decree. Of

[1] Data are from report of A. Dana Hodgdon, American consul at Berlin, dated July 16, 1938; and Reichsgesetzblatt (Berlin), Teil I, S. 652, issued June 23, 1938.

the present total number of unemployed, amounting to about 300,000, only about 37,000 are fully able to work. The remaining 263,000 are unemployable. In order to carry out the projects of the Four-Year Plan "as scheduled," it becomes necessary to make use of the labor of other "less important" industries and trades.

To illustrate, there is reproduced below a table, published by the office of the employment service and unemployment insurance, giving the total number of vacant jobs and unemployed persons in certain industrial branches. According to this table, which sets forth figures for the end of May 1938, there is an actual shortage of labor in the fields of agriculture, building, and iron and steel manufacture.

	Vacant jobs	*Unemployed males*
Agriculture	53, 436	2, 206
Mining	1, 446	2, 373
Sand, gravel, and quarrying	3, 756	3, 046
Iron and metal industries	17, 362	15, 930
Chemical industry	645	933
Nutrition industry	2, 355	7, 788
Clothing industry	1, 011	8, 035
Building industry	25, 601	4, 957
Transportation	8, 902	23, 485

It is officially stated that labor is to be drafted only for projects the execution of which cannot be delayed. The expedition of work on projects of the 4-year plan is the main objective of the new decree, which will consequently be of particular importance to the building and metal industries.

The remuneration of conscript labor is to be made on the basis of the salary or wage of the drafted person in his original occupation. It is further specified that the compulsory assignment shall last for a limited period only. Because of the prohibition against discharges of drafted workers, landlords must continue the lease of apartments of such persons, as their legal place of work is still retained.

In an order issued on June 29, 1938, it is stipulated that employers whose plants come under the supervision of the 4-year plan and who are in need of workers are to file application for additional labor with the district labor office. The act of conscription is to be considered a legal substitute for a regular labor contract between the drafted person and the employer. The conscription applies to all kinds of services, but drafted persons will be given assignments appropriate to their abilities and professional experience, when possible.

The original decree of June 22, 1938, does not contain any penalty clause. However, it is officially stated that "the execution of the decree did not have to be insured by special penalty clauses, as the commissioner for the 4-year plan has stipulated in the second decree for the execution of the 4-year plan * * * that violation of his decrees or prohibitions would be punished by imprisonment and fines, the latter to an unlimited extent, or by one of these penalties."

REGULATION OF HOURS OF WORK OF TRUCK AND BUS DRIVERS

BY AN ORDER of the Interstate Commerce Commission on July 12, 1938, the hours of work of bus and truck drivers engaged in the transportation of passengers or property in interstate or foreign commerce are subject to regulations authorized by Congress for the promotion of safety. The regulations, effective October 1, 1938, embody certain modifications of the Commission's order of December 29, 1937, the enforcement of which was postponed for reargument upon petition filed by representatives of organized labor.[1]

The regulations, as modified, provide for a maximum week of 60 hours, a week being defined as any period of 168 consecutive hours beginning at the time the driver reports for duty. It is provided, however, that carriers operating vehicles on every day of the week may permit drivers in their employ to remain on duty not more than 70 hours in any period of 192 consecutive hours. There is a further limitation to the effect that no carrier shall permit or require a driver in his employ to drive or operate a motor vehicle for more than 10 hours in the aggregate in any period of 24 consecutive hours unless the driver is off duty for 8 consecutive hours during or immediately following the 10 hours' aggregate driving and within the 24 consecutive hours. This limitation of 10 hours applies to the actual driving or operating of the motor vehicle and not to duty that is not performed on a moving vehicle. Two periods of resting or sleeping in a berth on the motor vehicle properly equipped for the purpose of sleeping, as defined in the regulations, may be cumulated to give the required total of 8 hours off duty. These regulations apply not only to persons employed by common carriers but also to a carrier himself if he is a driver as distinguished from an employer of drivers. The regulations also require the keeping of daily logs by drivers with detailed entries prescribed by the regulations, and the making of monthly reports by carriers to the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The Commission in its discussion of the regulations explains that they are designed to carry into effect the statutory provision for im-

[1] U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission. Hours of Service Regulations: Rules and Regulations Governing the Maximum Hours of Drivers of Motor Vehicles Operated by Common and Contract Carriers, revised issue, effective October 1, 1938; also requirements as to driver's daily log and carrier's monthly reports. Washington, 1938.

posing regulations for the specific purpose of promoting safety. It is held that the statute includes no basis for regulating hours for economic ends. The Commission in its study of hours of service found much evidence of extremely excessive hours. Some of the drivers testified to working and driving 18 and 20 hours per day over long periods of time, especially during particular seasons of the year when traffic is heavy. The testimony of carrier representatives themselves afforded evidence of hours on duty from 14 to 16 per day, 6 days per week, and sometimes 7. The evidence indicated "the amazing figure of from 84 to 96 hours for a man who works 6 days a week, and of substantially over 100 hours for a man who is required to work 7 days a week." It was held that further delay in issuing regulations, pending the detailed factual study proposed by representatives of organized labor, would postpone the curtailment of these excessive hours, obviously inimical to public safety. The Commission stated that "we look with distinct disfavor on carriers or others who use regulations premised on safety as a means of defeating employees' efforts to improve their economic status." The regulations as promulgated are described as an initial step.

REGULATION OF WORKING CONDITIONS OF MOTOR-CARRIER EMPLOYEES IN GREAT BRITAIN

EMPLOYEES engaged in the operation of public commercial motor vehicles will have their working conditions, including wages and hours, regulated by wages boards to be established under the terms of a law in Great Britain,[1] which received Royal Assent, July 13, 1938. The act provides for area wages boards and a central organization, the plan following substantially that recommended by a special committee to investigate the needs of the motor-carrier industry. Terms of employment for workers engaged by public and private carriers in connection with the mechanical transport of goods by road are covered. Failure of employers to pay wages at the rates fixed is punishable by fine. It was stated by the Minister of Labor, when this legislation was being considered, that the measure would affect 250,000 owners of licenses and from 600,000 to 700,000 road-haulage workers in this important modern industry.

The law differentiates between public carriers (those transporting goods for hire) and private carriers (those maintained by a particular firm). Between April 1936 and June 1937 the number of license holders of commercial motor vehicles increased 11 percent and the number of vehicles 10.3 percent. The increase in number of vehicles was largely in the class carrying goods for a particular firm and in effect a branch

[1] From report of Harry E. Carlson, American Consul at London, May 31, 1938; Manchester Guardian, May 28, 1938; and The Economist, London, June 18, 1938, p. 649.

of that firm's business. From this fact the conclusion is reached that public haulage is giving way to private transport.

Public Transport

In the section of the act dealing with public commercial motor vehicles provision is made for a Road Haulage Central Wages Board, and for regional boards for existing traffic areas in England and Wales and one such board for Scotland. The central body is empowered to combine the area boards as it may consider necessary.

The central board is authorized (1) to submit to the Minister proposals for fixing the remuneration of employees in the industry, including holiday pay; (2) to make recommendations to the proper governmental agencies regarding safety on the roads, the health and comfort of the workers affected, and any other matter relating to efficiency and conditions of work; and (3) to consider and report on any question referred to it by the Minister of Labor. The Board's duties include specifying the time during which a worker must be employed in any day or in any week in order to receive the stipulated wages, establishing the hours after which overtime rates are payable, and generally providing the conditions under which given wages are payable.

Matters may be referred to an area board by the central board for study and report, and the latter may delegate any of its functions to a committee or to an area board, with the exception of proposals for fixing remuneration. All boards are empowered to make arrangements for settling labor disputes under their jurisdiction and to promote the voluntary organization of such employers and workers.

Provision is made whereby the Minister of Labor may refer questions back to the central board before making a wage order, if this is necessary.

Private Transport

The section of the law dealing with remuneration of persons employed by private carriers in the transport industry—that is, on commercial vehicles used by a business but not for hire—provides for appeal to the Minister of Labor when workers consider that their pay is unfair. A road-haulage worker, or a trade-union of which he is a member, or a union which in the opinion of the Minister represents a substantial number of workers in the industry, may make such an appeal. Inclusion of the provision that a representative union might appeal for a nonmember was unsuccessfully opposed when the bill was before the House of Commons for its third reading.

Recourse to the provisions of the act may not be had by employees of private carriers if their wages are subject to some kind of regulation.

For such cases as do fall under the terms of this legislation, it is provided that the Minister of Labor, upon receiving a case, shall refer it to the Industrial Court for settlement. In any instance when special machinery for settlement of disputes exists, such facilities must be employed to obtain an agreement before the Minister refers the case to the Industrial Court, and then a case may be referred only on request of both parties to the dispute. Nothing in this law shall affect the Minister of Labor's powers to refer trade disputes to the Industrial Court under the Industrial Courts Act, 1919.

If the Industrial Court finds the wages of a worker to be unfair, it is empowered to establish the rate of pay, and the rate fixed becomes "statutory remuneration." The power thus accorded extends to fixing pay for vacations, hours, overtime pay, and other terms of employment. The Minister of Labor is permitted to make regulations for the publication of the court's decisions.

"Statutory remuneration," when fixed, applies to the worker on whose behalf an application is filed and all other workers doing the same work for the same employer.

Employers are obliged to pay their employees at the rates established, clear of all deductions. "Deductions" for the purposes of this legislation include any deductions whatsoever other than deductions for payments for health and unemployment insurance, or under any legislation authorizing deductions for contributions to any superannuation or other provident fund. Any payments made by a worker to his employer under the Truck Act, 1896, are also regarded as deductions for the purposes of this section and may not be taken from the worker's "statutory remuneration."

Liability

The court may order payments to a worker to compensate for the difference between the wages paid and those which ought to have been paid, for like offenses in any period during the two years immediately preceding the date of the offense on which conviction is obtained, provided notice of intention to give evidence thereof was served with the summons, warrant, or complaint, and such offenses are proved.

It is estimated that the administrative cost of this law to the Government will amount to about £25,000[2] per annum. This expenditure will be taken into account in fixing the license fees for motor transport vehicles.

[1] Pound at par=$4.866.

UNCONSTITUTIONALITY OF PENNSYLVANIA 44-HOUR WEEK LAW

THE Supreme Court of Pennsylvania recently held unconstitutional the State 44-hour law of 1937, applicable to certain male employees. (*Holgate Bros. Co.* v. *Bashore; Miller* v. *Bashore*, 200 Atl. 672.) The decision, however, does not affect the 44-hour law applicable to women.

The law declared by the court as invalid limited the hours of labor to 44 a week or 8 a day, and the working days to 5½ a week. It did not apply to agricultural labor, to domestic servants in private homes, nor to persons over 21 years of age earning $25 a week or more in executive positions or in the professions. The State department of labor and industry, with the approval of the industrial board, was empowered to grant exemptions from the strict operation of the legislation where working conditions warranted. The law also provided that where a Federal regulation fixed a schedule of working hours, the department of labor and industry and the industrial board would be obliged to conform to the Federal requirements.

An action was brought in the first instance in the Dauphin County Court by Holgate Brothers Co. to restrain the enforcement of the law, and later some 700 employers joined in the suit against the enforcement of the law. A number of labor organizations were permitted to intervene in behalf of the State. The court granted an order restraining the State from enforcing any of the provisions of the law. An appeal was then taken to the State supreme court.

In affirming the ruling of the lower court, Mr. Justice Drew, of the supreme court, based his decision on the ground that the law delegated to the department of labor and industry, with the approval of the industrial board, the power to make laws for the regulation of hours of labor, and attempted to give to Federal authority the power to regulate working conditions in Pennsylvania.

The court briefly outlined the legal conclusion and the findings of fact upon which the case was determined in the lower court. It referred to the prohibition against the delegation of legislative power and pointed out that it was the outgrowth of the fundamental theory of the separation of powers "which permeates our State and Federal Constitutions alike." The court declared that the "legislative power in Pennsylvania is vested solely in the General Assembly," and that—

> Regardless of exigencies which at times arise or of how trying our economic or social conditions become, the powers and duties imposed by the Constitution upon the legislative branch of our government remain steadfast and neither the urgency of the necessity at hand nor the gravity of the situation allow the legislature to abdicate, transfer or delegate its authority or duty to another branch of the government.

The court, however, pointed out that this does not mean that the legislature may not leave to administrative officers, boards or commissions, the duty of determining whether the facts exist to which the law is itself restricted, but in all such cases—

> the legislative body must surround such authority with definite standards, policies and limitations to which such administrative officers, boards or commissions must strictly adhere and by which they are strictly governed.

The court also declared that the legislature may confer upon a department the power to ascertain whether the facts exist upon which a law is to operate. It was shown that these facts generally are of a scientific nature, "not involving a personal decision as to whether the facts should be considered within the general policy of the law in question."

Again the court showed that there is another class of cases, in which the fact left for future determination is not one conforming in any degree to a scientific standard. These are cases in which primary standards are established and the duty is delegated to make the policy of the legislature effective. Mr. Justice Drew declared that this was the case in the creation of the public service commission and the milk control board by the State legislature. In this connection, the court said that any action taken was subject to judicial review to determine whether the facts brought the case within the standards prescribed by the legislature.

After stating that the power conferred on administrative tribunals must be limited and the scope of their authorized action clearly defined, the court quoted from the decision in the case of *Wichita Railroad & Light Co.* v. *Public Utilities Commission* (260 U. S. 48), in which the United States Supreme Court said:

> In creating such an administrative agency the legislature, to prevent its being a pure delegation of legislative power, must enjoin upon it a certain course of procedure and certain rules of decision in the performance of its function.

Mr. Justice Drew also referred to several other cases [1] which held that "if the legislature fails, however, to prescribe with reasonable clarity the limits of the power delegated or if these limits are too broad its attempt to delegate is a nullity."

The court in applying these principles reached the conclusion that section 2 (b) of the 44-hour week law violated the constitution of Pennsylvania because it "delegates to the department of labor and industry in conjunction with the industrial board the power to make law for the regulation of hours of labor," and, further, that it "attempts to hand over to Federal authority—whether Congress, executive commission, or other agency not yet appearing—plenary power to regulate working hours in Pennsylvania."

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[1] *Schechter Poultry Corp.* v. *United States* (295 U. S. 495); *Panama Refining Co.* v. *Ryan* (293 U. S. 388); *O'Neil* v. *Insurance Co.* (166 Pa. 72).

It was pointed out by the court that the department of labor and industry was authorized to change the provisions of the statute and make its own law where the strict application of the prescribed hours would impose an unnecessary hardship and violate the intent and purpose of the act. The authority of the department, with the approval of the industrial board, to prescribe variations from the schedule of hours laid down by the act was unlimited. Such variations could be made by means of general rules and regulations, and the department was free to fix the hours of labor in any industry without any guide or restraint of any kind.

"There is no policy set up," the court said, and "there are no standards, there are no boundaries within which the department and the board must exercise their discretion." And, again, "there are no requirements for hearings, findings of fact with reasons for conclusions, or appeals." There was, according to Mr. Justice Drew, merely a naked authority given to the department and the board to prescribe variations from the schedule of hours. "The power to amend or repeal a statute" the court averred "is as much legislative in nature as the power to enact the statute," and "it is impossible to find any restrictive policy in such a grant."

The lower court in its decision illustrated the power of the department under the act by referring to exemptions already granted, and the supreme court quoted with approval parts of the opinion. It was brought out by the lower court that the department, with the approval of the board, might provide a maximum workweek of any number of hours in excess of 44, and a maximum workday in excess of 8 hours applicable to any industry or employees or to all industries or to all employees. Such a prescription, the court continued "might be completely nullified or partially or entirely rewritten by the regulation of the department. The law then would be, not what the legislature prescribed, but what the department deemed proper."

The court, speaking through Mr. Justice Drew, called attention to the fact that the National Industrial Recovery Act was unconstitutional on the ground that the code-making authority conferred by the act was an unconstitutional delegation of legislative authority.[2] It was his opinion that the same criticism applies to the Pennsylvania 44-hour week act, as it "supplies no standards for any trade, industry, or activity, and does not undertake to prescribe rules of conduct to be applied to particular states of fact to be determined by any administrative procedure." Furthermore, the statement of the general aim of the act "* * * to protect the public health and welfare" is "as broad in scope as the general aim of rehabilitation, correction, and expansion described in the National Industrial Recovery Act."

Two other decisions holding statutes invalid because of unlawful delegation of legislative powers were referred to by the court: *People*

[2] *Schechter Poultry Corp. v. United States*, supra.

v. *C. Klinck Packing Co.*, 214 N. Y. 121; *O'Neil* v. *Insurance Company*, 166 Pa. 72. After quoting from these two cases, Mr. Justice Drew declared that "even more palpably violative of the Constitution is the provision of section 2 (b)" which requires the department of labor and industry to conform to schedules established by Federal regulation—"Whatever the Federal schedule, now or hereafter adopted may be, the Pennsylvania schedule 'shall conform.' "

This section of the law, Mr. Justice Drew said, is mandatory, and whenever a Federal regulatory body establishes a schedule of hours for any industry, the department of labor and industry will be bound to adopt it. This would introduce an inequality in the requirement for hours of labor in Pennsylvania. "In this attempted transfer of legislative power," the court concluded, "there is not even a semblance of limitation or control," and further declared that it would be difficult to imagine a more sweeping abdication of power and duty.

The court, therefore, held the 44-hour week law of Pennsylvania to be unconstitutional, and affirmed the decision of the lower court.

EFFECT OF MINIMUM WAGE ON WOMEN'S EARNINGS IN RHODE ISLAND

THE INTRODUCTION of the minimum wage in the three industry groups in Rhode Island for which wage orders have become operative has had the effect of raising the wage rates of many women and minors, but has not resulted in the minimum wage becoming the maximum nor in women being replaced by men. This was indicated by the results of surveys of wages before and after the minimum wage became effective, made by the Division of Women and Children of the Rhode Island Department of Labor. The data in this article were taken from the reports of these surveys.[1]

Minimum-wage orders became operative in Rhode Island in jewelry manufacturing, March 1, 1937; in the manufacturing of wearing apparel and allied industries, October 18, 1937; and in the laundry and dry-cleansing industries, May 2, 1938. The wage orders, when put into effect, were directory only, carrying no fines as penalty for violation. Those in the jewelry-manufacturing and the wearing-apparel and allied industries were, however, made mandatory on August 1, 1937, and April 25, 1938, respectively.

[1] Rhode Island. Department of Labor. Division of Women and Children. Comparison Hours and Wages of Employees in 132 Identical Firms Manufacturing Jewelry in the State of Rhode Island, Before and After the Mandatory Wage Order, [Providence], April 1938; Comparison Hours and Wages of Employees in 54 Identical Firms in the Manufacturing of Wearing Apparel and Allied Industries in the State of Rhode Island Before and After the Mandatory Wage Order, also Preliminary Summary of the Results of the Laundry and Dry Cleansing Wage Orders, [Providence], June 1938 (mimeographed).

The survey in the jewelry-manufacturing industry covered 132 identical firms, with 8,467 employees in August 1936 and 9,657 in August 1937; the survey in the wearing-apparel and allied industries covered 54 identical firms, with 4,392 employees in October 1936 and 3,700 in November 1937; and the survey in the laundry and dry-cleansing industries covered 155 establishments in the second week of May 1938, employing 1,887 women and minors who come under the 30-cent minimum. Detailed data are available for the first two industries, but as yet only summary data have been published for the laundry and dry-cleansing industries. A rate of 35 cents was made the minimum in the wearing-apparel and allied industries and of 30 cents in jewelry-manufacturing and the laundry and dry-cleansing industries.

Hourly Earnings

Average (median) hourly earnings of women and minors covered by the survey of the jewelry industry increased from 32.1 cents before the introduction of the minimum wage to 36.0 cents after it became effective, or 12.1 percent. In the wearing-apparel and allied industries the increase was from 33.3 to 38.1 cents, or 14.4 percent.

In the jewelry-manufacturing firms surveyed, 38.1 percent of the women and minors received less than 30 cents an hour before the wage order, as compared with 0.2 percent afterward. A similar decrease occurred in the proportion of women and minors in the laundry and dry-cleansing industries who received less than 30 cents an hour before and after the wage order, the reduction being from 40.1 percent to 2.4 percent.

In the wearing-apparel and allied industries, the percentage of women and minors reported as receiving less than 35 cents an hour was reduced from 56.3 before the wage order to 27.4 after it went into operation—or over one-half. In this industry group the wage order made provision for lower rates for learners and handicapped persons, so that the percentage receiving less than the minimum after the wage order did not represent violations only.

Both in jewelry manufacturing and in the wearing-apparel and allied industries a distribution by wage groups showed a smaller percentage of the women and minors in each wage group below the minimum rate, and a larger percentage in each wage group above that rate, after the wage orders than before. The reports for the laundry and dry-cleansing industries disclosed that after the wage order was issued, 47.3 percent of the women and minors covered were paid the minimum rate exactly, and that 50.3 percent received more than that rate.

From these facts it appears that the increases in wage rates of the lower-paid workers in these three industries in Rhode Island have not resulted in lowered rates for the higher-paid workers therein.

The following table presents a distribution of the workers in the jewelry-manufacturing and the wearing-apparel and allied industries, by hourly earnings, in 1936 and 1937—or before and after the introduction of the minimum wage.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Hourly Earnings in Rhode Island Jewelry Manufacture and Wearing-Apparel Industries, 1936–37*

JEWELRY MANUFACTURE (132 IDENTICAL FIRMS)

Hourly earnings	Number						Percent					
	All employees		Males 21 and over		Females and males under 21		All employees		Males 21 and over		Females and males under 21	
	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937
Total employees reporting	7,082	9,382	2,574	3,712	4,508	5,670	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 15 cents	76	2	3	2	73	------	1.1	0	0.1	0.1	1.6	0
15 to 20 cents	218	3	21	1	197	[1] 2	3.1	0	.8	0	4.4	0
20 to 25 cents	483	9	53	9	430	------	6.8	0.1	2.1	.2	9.5	0
25 to 30 cents	1,139	29	121	16	1,018	[1] 13	16.1	.3	4.7	.4	22.6	0.2
30 to 35 cents	1,873	4,249	291	574	1,582	3,675	26.4	45.3	11.3	15.5	35.1	64.8
35 to 40 cents	940	1,438	280	374	660	1,064	13.3	15.3	10.9	10.1	14.6	18.8
40 to 45 cents	641	973	351	509	290	464	9.1	10.4	13.6	13.7	6.4	8.2
45 to 50 cents	392	608	294	403	98	205	5.5	6.5	11.4	10.9	2.2	3.6
50 to 55 cents	343	536	274	430	69	106	4.8	5.7	10.6	11.6	1.5	1.9
55 to 60 cents	158	325	136	286	22	39	2.2	3.5	5.3	7.7	.5	.7
60 to 65 cents	193	269	173	238	20	31	2.7	2.9	6.7	6.4	.4	.5
65 to 70 cents	127	170	115	155	12	15	1.8	1.8	4.5	4.2	.3	.3
70 to 75 cents	111	154	97	134	14	20	1.6	1.6	3.8	3.6	.3	.4
75 cents and over	388	617	365	581	23	36	5.5	6.6	14.2	15.7	.5	.6

WEARING-APPAREL AND ALLIED INDUSTRIES (54 IDENTICAL FIRMS)

	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937
Total employees reporting	4,332	3,618	800	625	3,532	2,993	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 10 cents	9	3	------	------	9	3	0.2	0.1	------	------	0.3	0.1
10 to 15 cents	168	6	3	------	165	6	3.9	.2	0.4	------	4.7	.2
15 to 20 cents	295	46	18	2	277	44	6.8	1.3	2.3	0.3	7.8	1.5
20 to 25 cents	332	152	26	6	306	146	7.7	4.2	3.3	1.0	8.7	4.9
25 to 30 cents	607	258	42	19	565	239	14.0	7.1	5.3	3.0	16.0	8.0
30 to 35 cents	726	404	63	25	663	379	16.8	11.2	7.9	4.0	18.8	12.7
35 to 40 cents	852	1,178	69	84	783	1,094	19.7	32.6	8.6	13.4	22.2	36.6
40 to 45 cents	461	586	108	52	353	534	10.6	16.2	13.5	8.3	10.0	17.8
45 to 50 cents	322	313	76	90	246	223	7.4	8.7	9.5	14.4	7.0	7.5
50 to 55 cents	183	190	109	56	74	134	4.2	5.3	13.6	9.0	2.1	4.5
55 to 60 cents	132	171	87	50	45	121	3.0	4.7	10.9	8.0	1.3	4.0
60 to 65 cents	63	92	36	49	27	43	1.5	2.5	4.5	7.8	.8	1.4
65 to 70 cents	26	43	21	34	5	9	.6	1.2	2.6	5.4	.1	.3
70 to 75 cents	32	28	29	22	3	6	.7	.8	3.6	3.5	.1	.2
75 cents and over	124	148	113	136	11	12	2.9	4.1	14.1	21.8	.3	.4

[1] Back wages were later collected so that these females and male minors received earnings at the rate of 30 cents an hour.

Weekly Earnings

Average (median) earnings in the jewelry and wearing-apparel industries showed an increase in 1937, after the minimum wage became effective, over those in 1936. In jewelry manufacturing the average weekly earnings of women and minors increased from $12.16 to $13.63, or 12 percent. The increase in the weekly wages of women and minors in the manufacture of wearing apparel and allied industries was smaller, being from $12.90 to $13.32, or 3.3 percent. A shorter workweek in 1937 was given as the reason for the small increase in weekly earnings in the wearing-apparel industries as compared with that in hourly earnings. The fact that there were 692 fewer employees in the reporting firms in this industry in 1937 than in 1936, being a decrease of 15.8 percent, indicated, it is stated in the report, that the shorter workweek was probably due to the recession in the fall of 1937.

A distribution of the workers in the reporting firms in these industries by week's earnings is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of Week's Earnings in Jewelry Manufacture and in Wearing Apparel Industries, 1936–37*

JEWELRY MANUFACTURE (132 IDENTICAL FIRMS)

Week's earnings	Number						Percent					
	All employees		Males 21 and over		Females, and males under 21		All employees		Males 21 and over		Females, and males under 21	
	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937	Aug. 1936	Aug. 1937
Total employees reporting	7,350	9,630	2,718	3,911	4,632	5,719	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than $2	86	70	9	16	77	54	1.2	0.7	0.3	0.4	1.7	0.9
$2 to $4	165	158	26	38	139	120	2.2	1.6	1.0	1.0	3.0	2.1
$4 to $6	206	165	29	34	177	131	2.8	1.7	1.1	.9	3.8	2.3
$6 to $8	377	317	66	47	311	270	5.1	3.3	2.4	1.2	6.7	4.7
$8 to $10	665	474	86	91	579	383	9.0	4.9	3.2	2.3	12.5	6.7
$10 to $12	979	661	141	130	838	531	13.3	6.9	5.2	3.3	18.1	9.3
$12 to $14	1,358	1,827	244	294	1,114	1,533	18.5	19.0	9.0	7.5	24.1	26.8
$14 to $16	1,057	1,917	287	389	770	1,528	14.4	19.9	10.6	9.9	16.6	26.7
$16 to $18	588	993	272	414	316	579	8.0	10.3	10.0	10.6	6.8	10.1
$18 to $20	385	607	247	350	138	257	5.2	6.3	9.1	8.9	3.0	4.5
$20 to $22	289	473	220	317	69	156	3.9	4.9	8.1	8.1	1.5	2.7
$22 to $24	198	357	169	300	29	57	2.7	3.7	6.2	7.7	.6	1.0
$24 to $26	218	304	182	250	36	54	3.0	3.2	6.7	6.4	.8	.9
$26 to $28	131	200	128	186	3	14	1.8	2.1	4.7	4.8	.1	.2
$28 to $30	103	158	90	148	13	10	1.4	1.6	3.3	3.8	.3	.2
$30 to $32	108	163	104	154	4	9	1.5	1.7	3.8	3.9	.1	.2
$32 to $34	79	120	73	112	6	8	1.1	1.2	2.7	2.9	.1	.1
$34 to $36	82	126	77	119	5	7	1.1	1.3	2.8	3.0	.1	.1
$36 to $38	41	83	41	79	------	4	.6	.9	1.5	2.0	------	.1
$38 to $40	17	61	17	58	------	3	.2	.6	.6	1.5	------	.1
$40 to $50	116	207	109	200	7	7	1.6	2.1	4.0	5.1	.2	.1
$50 and over	102	189	101	185	1	4	1.4	2.0	3.7	4.7	------	.1

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of Week's Earnings in Jewelry Manufacture and in Wearing-Apparel Industries, 1936–37*—Continued

WEARING APPAREL AND ALLIED INDUSTRIES (54 IDENTICAL FIRMS)[1]

Week's earnings	Number						Percent					
	All employees		Males 21 and over		Females, and males under 21		All employees		Males 21 and over		Females, and males under 21	
	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937	Oct. 1936	Nov. 1937
Total employees reporting	4,392	3,697	840	678	3,552	3,019	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than $2	20	39	------	1	20	38	.4	1.1	------	.1	.6	1.3
$2 to $4	92	98	8	2	84	96	2.1	2.7	1.0	.3	2.4	3.2
$4 to $6	191	167	15	18	176	149	4.3	4.5	1.8	2.7	5.0	4.9
$6 to $8	337	234	32	6	305	228	7.7	6.3	3.8	.9	8.6	7.6
$8 to $10	432	330	38	12	394	318	9.8	8.8	4.5	1.8	11.1	10.5
$10 to $12	481	379	26	21	455	358	11.0	10.3	3.1	3.1	12.8	11.9
$12 to $14	795	535	38	47	757	488	18.1	14.5	4.5	6.9	21.3	16.2
$14 to $16	665	705	97	66	568	639	15.1	19.1	11.5	9.7	16.0	21.2
$16 to $18	529	403	106	43	423	360	12.0	11.0	12.6	6.3	11.9	11.9
$18 to $20	286	216	101	60	185	156	6.5	5.8	12.0	8.8	5.2	5.2
$20 to $22	178	137	76	47	102	90	4.1	3.7	9.0	6.9	2.9	3.0
$22 to $24	112	111	79	63	33	48	2.6	3.0	9.4	9.3	.9	1.6
$24 to $26	68	98	41	70	27	28	1.5	2.7	4.9	10.3	.8	.9
$26 to $28	35	41	30	33	5	8	.8	1.1	3.6	4.9	.1	.3
$28 to $30	35	33	29	28	6	5	.8	.9	3.5	4.1	.2	.2
$30 to $32	25	41	20	36	5	5	.6	1.1	2.4	5.3	.1	.2
$32 to $34	30	18	29	17	1	1	.7	.5	3.5	2.5	(1)	(1)
$34 to $36	23	24	21	22	2	2	.5	.6	2.5	3.2	.1	.1
$36 to $38	10	25	7	25	3	------	.2	.7	.8	3.7	.1	------
$38 to $40	8	13	8	12	------	1	.2	.4	1.0	1.8	------	(1)
$40 to $50	26	30	25	29	1	1	.6	.8	3.0	4.3	(1)	(1)
$50 and over	14	20	14	20	------	------	.3	.5	1.7	2.9	------	------

[1] Less than ½ of 1 percent.

Effect on Employment of Women

The proportion of women to men employed remained approximately the same in the wearing-apparel and allied industries after the order became operative as before, and exactly the same in the laundry and dry-cleansing industries; in jewelry manufacturing the proportion of women and minors increased from 54.8 to 59.2 percent. From these data it appears that the introduction of the minimum wage did not result in women losing their jobs and being replaced by men. While the minimum-wage orders did not apply to men, in both the jewelry and the wearing-apparel and allied industries they apparently benefited the men also, as in the jewelry industry the percentage of men receiving less than the minimum set for women fell from 7.7 before the order to 0.7 after it went into effect, and in the wearing-apparel industries it decreased from 19.2 to 8.3.

EARNINGS OF WHITE-COLLAR AND SKILLED URBAN NEGROES, 1936

OF 213,983 urban Negro workers in the white-collar and skilled classes in 85 cities in various sections of the United States in 1936, 22 percent earned on an average less than $5 per week, 63.2 percent under $25, and only 1.4 percent $50 or more. Less than $5 per week was earned by 15.9 percent of the males and 33.8 percent of the females, and less than $25 per week by 58.9 percent of the males and 71.6 percent of the females. These facts were revealed by a survey carried on by the office of the Adviser on Negro Affairs in the United States Department of the Interior,[1] a summary of the findings of which are presented in the following table.

Percentage Distribution of White-Collar and Skilled Urban Negro Workers, by Average Weekly Earnings During 1936, Sex, and Occupational Class

Average weekly earnings during 1936	Both sexes			Males			Females		
	Total	White-collar	Skilled	Total	White-collar	Skilled	Total	White-collar	Skilled
United States	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than $5	22.0	20.3	23.9	15.9	12.3	18.8	33.8	30.3	41.6
$5 to $9	7.6	7.3	8.0	5.9	5.5	6.2	11.0	9.5	14.4
$10 to $14	12.7	11.1	14.4	13.2	10.1	15.6	11.7	12.4	10.0
$15 to $19	13.1	11.6	14.8	14.7	11.7	17.0	10.0	11.4	6.9
$20 to $24	7.8	7.5	8.1	9.2	8.5	9.7	5.1	6.3	2.5
$25 to $29	5.1	5.0	5.2	6.3	6.2	6.4	2.8	3.6	1.5
$30 to $34	3.2	2.8	3.7	4.1	3.5	4.7	1.6	2.0	.1
$35 to $39	2.1	2.3	2.0	2.7	3.0	2.5	1.0	1.3	.1
$40 to $44	2.3	3.6	1.0	3.2	5.7	1.2	.6	.9	.1
$45 to $49	.8	1.0	.4	1.0	1.6	.6	.3	.5	.1
$50 to $74	1.0	1.4	.5	1.2	1.9	.6	.6	.8	.2
$75 to $99	.3	.4	.2	.3	.5	.2	.2	.2	.2
$100 and over	.1	.2	(1)	.1	.3	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Own account and commission	10.8	12.8	8.5	10.3	15.1	6.4	11.7	9.9	15.8
Not given	11.1	12.7	9.3	11.9	14.2	10.1	9.6	10.9	6.6

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

[1] Issued under the title, "The Urban Negro Worker in the United States, 1925–1936."

HARLEM PACT FOR EMPLOYMENT OF WHITE-COLLAR NEGRO WORKERS

AT LEAST one-third of all white-collar jobs in the retail establishments of Harlem were pledged to Negroes, under an agreement, preceded by 4 months of negotiations, which was made public on August 7, 1938, by the New York Uptown Chamber of Commerce, acting for hundreds of independent and chain stores, and the Greater New York Coordinating Committee for Employment, representing over 200 Negro organizations.

According to a joint statement by the representatives of the two parties, the white employees of the stores in Harlem would not be ousted from their jobs as a result of this compact. In establishments in which less than one-third of the executives, clerks, and sales persons are Negroes, members of this race will fill the places of white clerks as the latter are transferred to other branches, leave of their own accord, or are discharged for cause. The acting chairman of the coordinating committee estimated that the stores accepting this provision employ 10,000 persons in the 125th Street neighborhood.

The retailers have promised not to restrict opportunities for Negro advancement and to bring pressure to bear upon noncooperating labor unions to induce them to include Negroes, to avoid retaliation against Negroes in stores beyond the boundaries of Harlem, and to abstain from discrimination against Negro workers either as to wage scales or lay-offs.

The Negro groups on their side have pledged themselves not to picket, boycott, or have recourse to other mass demonstration against stores, even those not participating in the compact, until the charges of discrimination against these establishments have been sustained by an arbitration committee representing both parties to the controversy. An arbitration board of 10, each side having 5 members, will handle disputes, and the findings of such board are to be binding on the contending parties.

A special sign will identify cooperating stores, and the Negro organizations have pledged themselves to make an effort to increase the number of jobs in these stores by stimulating Negro patronage.

Employers in seeking Negro employees under the compact will apply to a central employment bureau operated jointly by the New York Urban League, the Harlem Young Men's Christian Association, and the Harlem Young Women's Christian Association.

Both the president of the Uptown Chamber of Commerce and the chairman of the Coordinating Committee for Employment predicted that the compact would "abolish prejudice against Negro workers in Harlem and bring a new and more peaceful era to the community's Negro population of 300,000."

Encouraged by the Harlem compact, the Greater New York Coordinating Committee for Employment will call a conference in the fall of persons who have been cooperating with that body to consider plans for applying that agreement to other sections of New York City. As indicative of the probable success of the proposed campaign, the favorable action of the New York Telephone Co., Consolidated Edison Co., Liggett's Drug Stores, and other large establishments in agreeing to take on Negro employees was cited.

Two officers of the coordinating committee also announced that, as an outcome of the recent Harlem agreement, that organization had received requests from many parts of the United States to call a national conference on jobs. This matter will be taken up at the fall meeting.

Cooperation

COOPERATIVE WHOLESALE ASSOCIATIONS, 1936 [1]

COOPERATIVE wholesaling is now firmly established in the United States. At the end of 1936 there were in operation 20 regional wholesales with a trading area of one or more States, dealing in consumers' goods.[2] In addition there were 2 interregional wholesales formed by the regional wholesales to pool their purchasing power and obtain the advantages of large-scale orders; and 9 federations of less than State-wide scope, specializing in certain commodities.

Data were obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for 19 regional, both of the interregional, and all of the district associations.

The 19 regional wholesales in 1936 were serving more than 1,700 member associations, and over 600 other cooperatives were making wholesale purchases from them, though not affiliated. A wholesale business in excess of $40,000,000 was reported by the regional cooperatives, a gain of 24.2 percent over 1935. All but one showed a substantial increase in business in 1936 over the previous year. Indeed, eight of these associations in 1936 had the largest amount of sales in their history. Six associations had sales of more than $3,000,000 each and three of these had sales of over $5,000,000. Increases were also shown in net earnings and refunds made on members' patronage. Share capital of nearly $2,000,000, total assets of nearly six millions, and net worth in excess of three and one-half millions were reported.

The year 1936 was a relatively uneventful period in cooperative wholesaling, though marked by substantial growth. Several organizations opened branch wholesale warehouses in new localities, others undertook the production of new commodities, and practically all enlarged their field of merchandising by adding new lines of goods to their stocks. Almost without exception the wholesales making returns reported a gain in the number of affiliated local associations as compared with 1935.

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[1] Part of a general survey of cooperatives by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Data for other types of associations have been given in previous issues of the Monthly Labor Review. For a more detailed report on the operations of the wholesale associations, see Serial No. R. 768.

[2] Several of the wholesales for which data are given herein handle commodities used in farm "business" (such as fencing, feed, seed, fertilizer, etc.), but none was included here unless it also handled consumers' goods. A number of farmers' organizations handle farm supplies only, but they are not covered here.

Summary of Membership and Operations of Cooperative Wholesales, 1936

State and association	Affiliated associations	Total assets [1]	Amount of business [2]	Net earnings	Patronage refunds
Interregional					
Illinois: National Cooperatives, Inc.	9	$9,778	[3]	$5,406	
Indiana: United Cooperatives, Inc.	9	187,939	$468,067	[4]	[4]
Total	18	197,717	468,067	5,406	[4]
Regional					
Illinois:					
Illinois Farm Supply Co.	62	562,900	6,291,506	[5] 274,942	$233,701
The Cooperative Wholesale	36	7,788	[6] 35,276	[6] 916	
Indiana: Indiana Farm Bureau Cooperative Association	88	[7] 808,512	5,187,457	131,336	93,291
Massachusetts: United Cooperative Farmers	31	39,358	647,941	9,048	4,500
Michigan: Farm Bureau Services	118	[8] 614,174	2,222,761 [9] 1,087,409	70,757	[4]
Minnesota:					
Farmers' Union Central Exchange	240	728,406	3,783,991 [9] 351,492	85,241	[4]
Midland Cooperative Wholesale	148	483,139	3,033,080	71,574	48,601
Minnesota Farm Bureau Service Co.	30	[4]	397,232	[4]	[4]
Missouri: Consumers' Cooperative Association	[10] 342	527,784	3,397,809 [9] 358,487	71,151	39,810
Nebraska: Farmers' Union State Exchange	[11] 275	696,635	1,721,221 [9] 1,050,494	62,903	40,847
New York: Eastern Cooperative Wholesale	33	42,619	285,512	[12] 1,617	
Ohio: Farm Bureau Cooperative Association	83	673,770	6,781,144	162,577	94,492
Oklahoma: Farmers' Union Sales Department	[4]	[4]	288,380	12,400	
Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Association	10	[4]	511,000	11,700	[13]
Texas: Consumers' Cooperatives Associated	52	[4]	324,121	19,461	18,338
Washington: Grange Cooperative Wholesale	40	[4]	1,807,443	[4]	16,000
Wisconsin:					
Central Cooperative Wholesale	109	481,185	2,845,741	56,710	44,461
Farm Bureau Federation Cooperative	13	15,171	251,534	2,609	
Workers' and Farmers' Cooperative Unity Alliance	36	16,302	261,375	3,714	2,832
Total	1,746	5,697,743	40,074,524 [9] 2,847,882	1,045,422	636,873
District [14]					
Michigan:					
H-O-B Cooperative Oil Association	35	12,740	60,424	3,764	2,924
Northland Cooperative Oil Association	2	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]
Minnesota:					
Trico Cooperative Oil Association	14	43,286	171,996	17,673	16,034
C-A-P Cooperative Oil Association	10	[4]	[4]		
Range Cooperative Oil Association	15	29,111	167,103	11,926	11,926
Range Cooperative Federation	15	42,730	230,229	5,967	5,800
Wisconsin:					
A & B Cooperative Oil Association	8	12,263	56,606	2,976	2,976
Cooperative Services	5	41,679	135,821	8,187	6,828
Price County Cooperative Oil Association	5	7,870	37,853	2,091	1,450
Total	109	189,679	860,032	52,584	47,958

[1] Depreciation deducted.
[2] Unless otherwise noted, figures represent wholesale business.
[3] Not available. Orders of members are pooled and goods are shipped directly to them.
[4] No data.
[5] Does not include brokerage on direct-invoice sales.
[6] 9 months' operation.
[7] 1935.
[8] As of June 30, 1936.
[9] Retail.
[10] Does not include cooperative wholesales of Estonia, France, and Scotland, which became members through refunds earned by their patronage.
[11] And about 6,500 individual members.
[12] Loss.
[13] Patronage refund at rate of 1.87 percent; amount not reported.
[14] Figures for sales include a small amount of retail business.

Labor Laws

FEDERAL LABOR LEGISLATION, 1938

IN THE period November 15, 1937, to June 16, 1938, during which the Seventy-fifth Congress met in its second and third sessions, many acts affecting the welfare of employees were passed.[1] Four of the most important labor measures enacted—the Fair Labor Standards Act, the law providing for unemployment insurance for railroad employees, the act establishing a maritime labor board, and the work relief and general relief act—have been summarized in previous issues of the Monthly Labor Review.[2] The present article is an outline of the other important legislation, of general or special interest to labor, enacted by Congress during these sessions.

Hours of labor of certain seamen.—Public Act No. 702 provides an 8-hour day for officers and seamen on certain vessels navigating the Great Lakes and adjacent waters.

Strikebreakers.—The law of 1936 prohibiting the interstate transportation of strikebreakers was amended by Public Act No. 779, by extending the scope of the original act and making it more effective.

Investigation of labor conditions in Hawaii.—The Second Deficiency Appropriation Act (Public, No. 723) contains an appropriation of $14,900 for an investigation of labor conditions in Hawaii. The Bureau of Labor Statistics is required to collect, assort, and arrange statistical data relating to labor in Hawaii, especially in relation to the commercial, industrial, social, educational, and sanitary conditions of the laboring classes.

Workmen's compensation.—By the enactment of Public Act No. 727, a number of changes were made in the Federal Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Compensation Act.

The workmen's compensation law applicable to the District of Columbia was amended by Public Act No. 619. Heretofore, the act has been applicable to all employers. By the amendatory legislation, clerical workers (secretaries, stenographers, clerks, etc.) of any Member of Congress, are exempt from the terms of the act.

National employment system.—The Wagner-Peyser Act, which established a national employment system, was amended by Public

[1] For résumé of Federal labor legislation passed at the first session of the 75th Congress, see Monthly Labor Review, October 1937, p. 898 (also available as Serial No. R. 640).

[2] Issues of July 1938 (p. 107) and August 1938 (pp. 341, 344, and 345).

Act No. 782, so as to permit larger appropriations for the National Employment Service. Heretofore, 75 percent of the appropriations were apportioned among the States. The amended act provides that Congress shall designate the amounts to be apportioned by the Director.

Credit unions.—The Federal Credit Union Act was amended by Public Act No. 416 to provide that a credit union may invest as much as 25 percent of its funds in loans to other credit unions, and in shares or accounts of Federal Savings and Loan Associations. The funds of Federal credit unions are exempt from State or Federal taxation. It is also provided that the use of the premises of an employer by a Federal credit union will not be considered intimidation, coercion, interference, restraint, or discrimination under the National Labor Relations Act.

Monopoly investigation.—The National Economic Committee was created by the provisions of Public Resolution No. 113. This committee is composed of three members each of the Senate and House, and representatives of the Departments of Justice, Treasury, Commerce, Labor, the Securities and Exchange Commission, and the Federal Trade Commission. The committee is required to make a study of monopoly and the concentration of economic power, in order to determine (1) the cause of this concentration and its effect upon competition; (2) the effect of the existing price system and the price policies of industry upon the general level of trade, employment, long-term profits, and consumption; and (3) the effect of existing tax, patent, and other governmental policies upon competition, price levels, unemployment, profits, and consumption.

Bankruptcy.—The Federal Bankruptcy Act, which was completely revised and reenacted, contains several provisions of importance to labor (Public Act No. 696). In the reorganization of corporations, the court may permit a labor union or employees' association, representing employees of the debtor, to be heard on the economic soundness of the plan affecting the interests of the employees. The law also protects the right of employees to join a labor union or refuse to join or remain a member of a company union, and prohibits interference, coercion, or restraint by the court, a debtor, or a trustee.

Civil Aeronautics Authority.—This act (Public, No. 706) contains certain definite labor provisions, especially the preservation of the right of employees of air carriers to obtain higher compensation and better working conditions so as to conform to a decision of the National Labor Board of May 10, 1934 (No. 83).

Experimental air-mail service contracts.—By Public Act No. 486, the provisions of section 13 of the air-mail act of 1934 (Supp. III to the Code 1934, title 39, sec. 469k) relating to pay, working conditions, and relations of pilots and other employees shall apply to all contracts

awarded under the act. The purpose of the act is to provide experimental air-mail services so as to develop safety, efficiency, and economy in air-mail transportation, collection, and delivery.

Naval expansion.—Public Act No. 528 authorizes the construction of certain naval vessels. In this act the provisions of Public, No. 846, Seventy-fourth Congress (the Walsh-Healey Act), are made applicable to the construction, alteration, furnishing, or equipping of any naval vessel, contracts for which are made after June 30, 1938.

Preference to domestic goods.—The Foreign Service Buildings Act of 1926 was amended by Public Act No. 543. In the construction of diplomatic and consular establishments, it is provided that preference shall be given to articles of American manufacture, even though such articles, when delivered abroad, cost more, provided that such excess is not unreasonable.

Housing.—Public Act No. 424,[3] amending the National Housing Act of 1934, greatly liberalizes the mortgage-insurance provisions of the original act.

Legislation Affecting Federal Employees

Workmen's compensation.—Two amendments to the United States Employees' Workmen's Compensation Act were enacted. Public Act No. 468 authorizes the President to transfer the administration of the act, so far as employees of The Alaska Railroad are concerned, to the general manager of the railroad; appeals to the United States Employees' Compensation Commission are allowed, however.

Public Act No. 558 provides that osteopathic physicians and osteopathic hospitals, within the scope of their practice as defined by the State law, are now covered by the terms "physician" and "hospital." Hereafter, osteopathic physicians will have the same rights as they have under State laws.

Civil Service, etc.—By the provisions of Public Act No. 720, postmasters of the first, second, and third classes will be appointed in the classified service without term by the President, but subject to confirmation by the Senate. Present postmasters may serve out their terms of office, but hereafter appointments to these positions must be made by the reappointment and classification, noncompetitively, of the incumbent postmaster, or by promotion in accordance with the Civil Service Act, or by competitive examination.

The Civil Service Retirement Act was amended by Public Act No. 701, by adding a new provision to the section relating to employees who are reinstated or reemployed after a prior separation from the service. It is now provided that the failure of such employees to return the refund of their retirement contributions, received by them

[3] For a detailed summary of this act, see Monthly Labor Review, March 1938, p. 707.

when leaving the service, will not prevent them from receiving credit for the service rendered, but their annuity will be reduced by the amount such deposit would purchase, provided the employee elects to eliminate such service from credit under the act. Another amendment (Public Act No. 740) provides that employees of the Senate, who have become disabled, will come under the act immediately upon giving the notice required by the law.

On June 24, 1938, the President issued an Executive order (No. 7915) which, after February 1, 1939, will greatly increase the number of Federal employees subject to the Civil Service Act. The order requires that all employees and most officials must be selected and promoted on merit alone and forbids political activities by Government employees or the use of political influence to gain positions.

Compensation of certain employees.—By the terms of Public Resolution No. 127, regular employees of the Federal Government, whose compensation is fixed at a rate per day or per hour, or on a piece-work basis, will receive the same pay on legal holidays as they receive on other days on which an ordinary day's work is performed.

Acts applicable to postal and customs employees.—The salaries of rural letter carriers transferring from one rural route to another will be protected by the terms of Public Act No. 520, and the Postmaster General is authorized by Public Act No. 749 to pay overtime to rural carriers serving heavily patronized routes not exceeding 38 miles in length.

By Public Act No. 503, overtime will be paid to those customs officers and employees who remain on duty between the hours of 5 p. m. and 8 a. m., or on Sundays or holidays.

Legislation Applicable to the District of Columbia

Small claims court.—Congress, by Public Act No. 441, established a small claims and conciliation branch in the municipal court of the District of Columbia. In order to enable wage earners of small means to secure a speedy settlement of claims, this branch will handle claims not exceeding $50, exclusive of interest, attorney's and protest fees, and costs. It may also, with consent of the parties, settle cases by arbitration and conciliation, irrespective of the amount involved.[4]

Examination and licensing of workers.—Two new laws (Public Acts Nos. 579 and 580) provide, respectively, for the examination and licensing of cosmetologists and barbers, as well as the regulation of cosmetology and barber schools.

Miscellaneous.—Another legislative measure of interest in the District of Columbia is the so-called Pittman Embassy Picketing Act. This act prohibits the display of any device designed to intimi-

[4] For further discussion of this subject, see Labor Information Bulletin for May 1938, p. 14.

date or coerce any foreign government, party, or organization, within 500 feet of any building occupied for official purposes in the District of Columbia (Public Res. No. 79). The measure, however, exempts acts of picketing in the case of bona-fide labor disputes concerning the repair or construction of buildings occupied for business purposes by representatives of foreign countries. By Public Act No. 510, November 11 was made a legal holiday in the District. By the provisions of Public Act No. 654, the salaries of all the employees of the minimum-wage board of the District of Columbia are to be fixed in accordance with the Classification Act of 1923.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION IN THE UNITED STATES, AS OF JULY 1, 1938

THIS article analyzes the various workmen's compensation systems in the United States, as of January 1, 1938.[1] It covers such features of workmen's compensation as insurance, exemptions, election, extraterritoriality, waiting time, second injury, compensation benefits, administration and settlement of claims, accident reporting and prevention, and nonresident alien dependents.

In the 2½ years that have passed since the Bureau's latest previous analysis of this kind,[2] many changes have been made in the various laws. This is particularly true in the case of the coverage of occupational diseases. Payments of compensation on account of occupational diseases are now made in 27 States,[3] as compared with 18 as of January 1, 1936.

Types of Laws

The rapid growth of compensation legislation in the United States, involving, as it has, the almost simultaneous enactment of laws in a number of States, has operated to prevent the adoption of any one form of law as a type, so that, although a single fundamental principle underlies the entire group of laws of this class, its expression and application present great diversity of details in the different States. This extends not only to the primary factors of the scope of the laws and the amount of compensation payable under them but also to the matter of making the laws compulsory or voluntary in their acceptance, securing or not securing the payments of the benefits, the mode of securing where it is required, methods of administration, of election or rejection, etc.

Lack of space prevents detailed presentation of the provisions of the laws under consideration. Although their primary purpose is to compensate for injuries, these laws also contain safety provisions, provide for the enforcement of safety laws, establish insurance

[1] For a more detailed account of the history and development of workmen's compensation legislation in the United States, see earlier publications of the Bureau, particularly Bulletins Nos. 423 and 496.

[2] See Bulletin No. 616, pp. 362 and 1117.

[3] For convenience, all of the workmen's compensation laws in existence at the present time, irrespective of whether the act applies to State, Territorial possession, the District of Columbia, or the Federal Government, are referred to as "State" acts.

systems, and cover a great variety of subjects on which it would be impossible to generalize, and which can be discovered only by reading the individual statutes.

The general similarity in the laws of a few States can be clearly recognized, but it cannot be said that any one type of law predominates.

Insurance

It has become recognized generally that the only satisfactory method of financing the payment of benefits to injured workmen is through the insuring of the employer's liability. This may be effected through insurance with a private company or in a State fund. Self-insurance is authorized in most of the States. In such cases an employer must be able to satisfy the compensation board that he is financially able to carry his own risks before he is allowed to carry his own insurance.

In the majority of States the employer is allowed to insure in private insurance companies. However, in Nevada, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Puerto Rico, Washington, West Virginia, and Wyoming an exclusive State fund is maintained, and the employers coming under the coverage of the workmen's compensation law are required to insure their risks in this fund, although in Ohio and West Virginia self-insurance is permitted under certain circumstances. In some States competitive State funds are maintained in which the employers have the choice of insuring their risks either in the State fund or with private insurance companies.

Table 1 shows the insurance methods adopted in each State having a workmen's compensation law, and indicates whether compensation is compulsory or elective. The table relates only to private employments, although the notes indicate how public employees are covered.

TABLE 1.—*Insurance Requirements of Workmen's Compensation Laws*

State	Compensation compulsory or elective	Insurance required in—	
		State fund: Exclusive or competitive	Private companies or by self-insurance
Alabama	Elective		Either.
Alaska	do		(1).
Arizona	Compulsory [2]	Competitive	Either.
California	do	do	Do.
Colorado	Elective [3]	do	Do.
Connecticut	do		Do.
Delaware	do		Do.
District of Columbia	Compulsory		Do.
Florida	Elective		Do.
Georgia	do.[3]		Do.
Hawaii	Compulsory		Do.
Idaho	do	Competitive	Do.
Illinois	do.[4]		Do.
Indiana	Elective [5]		Do.
Iowa	do		Do.
Kansas	do		Do.

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Insurance Requirements of Workmen's Compensation Laws*—Continued

State	Compensation compulsory or elective	Insurance required in—	
		State fund: Exclusive or competitive	Private companies or by self-insurance
Kentucky	Elective		Either.
Louisiana	do.[2]		Do.
Maine	do.[3]		Do.
Maryland	Compulsory [4]	Competitive	Do.
Massachusetts	Elective [5]		Private companies.
Michigan	do.[3]	Competitive	Either.
Minnesota	Compulsory		Do.
Missouri	Elective		Do.
Montana	do.[7]	Competitive	Do.
Nebraska	do.[8]		Do.
Nevada	do.[9]	Exclusive	
New Hampshire	do		Self-insurance.
New Jersey	do.[3]		Either.
New Mexico	do		Do.
New York	Compulsory [4]	Competitive	Do.
North Carolina	Elective [10]		Do.
North Dakota	Compulsory	Exclusive	(11).
Ohio	do	do	Self-insurance.
Oklahoma	do	Competitive	Either.
Oregon	Elective [3]	Exclusive	
Pennsylvania	do.[9]	Competitive	Do.
Philippine Islands	Compulsory		Do.
Puerto Rico	do	Exclusive	
Rhode Island	Elective		Do.
South Carolina	do.[3]		Do.
South Dakota	do.[3]		Do.
Tennessee	do		Do.
Texas	do.[12]		Private companies.
Utah	Compulsory	Competitive	Either.
Vermont	Elective		Do.
Virginia	do.[3]		Do.
Washington	Compulsory	Exclusive	
West Virginia	Elective [3]	do	Self-insurance.[11]
Wisconsin	Compulsory		Either.
Wyoming	do	Exclusive	
United States: Longshoremen's Act	do		Do.

[1] No security is required, but in case beneficiary files notice of death claim employer may deposit $9,000 with clerk of district court or give bond for that amount. In other cases claimant may have a writ of attachment issued unless employer files an undertaking in an amount double that sued for.
[2] As to employers.
[3] Compulsory as to public employees.
[4] Compulsory as to public employees and hazardous employments only.
[5] Compulsory as to public employees and coal mining.
[6] Quasi-compulsory as to certain industries using dangerous machinery.
[7] Compulsory as to public corporations and contractors doing work for such corporations.
[8] The State compensation court recently ruled that all public employees are subject to the act without the right of election by either the employer or employee.
[9] Compulsory as to public employees and contractors on public works.
[10] Compulsory as to certain public employees.
[11] Employers accepting the act must furnish proof of solvency or give bond: no other provision as to insurance.
[12] Compulsory as to motorbus companies.

It will be noted that 19 compensation acts are compulsory and 33 are elective. State insurance systems exist in 19 States. Of these 8 are monopolistic, and 11 operate on a competitive basis. The Idaho statute seems to contemplate an exclusive State fund with an option for self-insurance and the deposit of a surety bond or guaranty contract as the means of satisfying the industrial board as to the security of payments. The reports of the board indicate, however, that the system is competitive in practice and that approved private companies are permitted to do business in the State. The Ohio and West Virginia laws provide for self-insurance as well as for a State fund, but those States are listed as having monopolistic State funds as no other means of insurance is provided.

Coverage

None of the compensation laws attempts to cover all employments. Railroad companies' employees and other persons engaged in interstate commerce are not covered by State laws, as interstate commerce comes under the jurisdiction of Federal laws, and certain employees are specifically exempt by the various acts. Some laws apply only to employees engaged in hazardous employments. Casual employees are usually exempt, and the laws generally do not apply to employees engaged in agriculture and domestic service.

Numerical exemptions.—In 27 States employers of less than a stipulated number of employees are exempt from the operation of the laws. However, voluntary elections are usually permitted, as is the case in regard to employments classed as not hazardous when the law covers only hazardous occupations. Table 2 lists the States in which the number of employees determines the coverage:

TABLE 2.—*States Making Numerical Exemptions* [1]

Employers are exempt who have less than—								
2 employees	3 employees	4 employees	5 employees	6 employees	10 employees	11 employees	15 employees	16 employees
Oklahoma.	Arizona. Florida.[2] Kentucky. Ohio. Texas. Utah. Wisconsin.	Colorado. New Mexico.[3] New York.[4] Puerto Rico.	Alaska. Connecticut. Delaware. Kansas. New Hampshire. North Carolina.[5] Tennessee.	Maine. Rhode Island.	Georgia.	Missouri.[4] Vermont, Virginia.	South Carolina.	Alabama.

[1] The following States do not make numerical exemptions: California, District of Columbia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Phillipines, South Dakota, Washington, West Virginia, Wyoming, and United States (Civil Employees' and Longshoremen's Acts). In some of these States, however, coverage is limited to certain enumerated industries.

[2] Sawmills (other than tractor sawmills) employing 10 or less are excluded.

[3] Numerical exemption does not apply if injury occurs when at work upon any derrick, scaffolding, or pole, 10 feet or more above ground.

[4] Numerical exemption applies only in case of nonhazardous employments.

[5] Sawmill operators with less than 15 employees are excluded.

Hazardous employments.—In 11 States [4] the compensation laws apply only to hazardous employments, but in all of these States, except Oklahoma and Wyoming, employers and employees in other occupations are permitted to come under the act. The laws of Kansas, Louisiana and New Mexico are elective, while those of the other States are compulsory. In Oregon, the compensation act is elective as to most employments, but compulsory as to hazardous industries. The Missouri act applies generally only to employers of 11 or more, but in hazardous industries those employing less than 11 are subject

[4] Illinois, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland, Montana, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Washington, and Wyoming.

to the law. In most of these States the industries covered are enumerated, but the list is not complete in several States and in some a blanket clause is used, while in others additions have been made by administrative agencies and the courts.

Public employments.—Employees of the State and its subdivisions and municipalities are included generally in 34 States. In several of the States compensation for public employees is compulsory, although it is elective as to private employments. In the following jurisdictions public employees are covered generally:

Arizona (if receiving not over $2,400)	Maine	Puerto Rico
California	Michigan	Rhode Island
Colorado	Minnesota	South Carolina
Connecticut	Montana	South Dakota
Florida	Nebraska	Utah
Hawaii (if receiving not over $1,800)	Nevada	Vermont (if receiving not over $2,000)
Idaho	New Jersey	Virginia
Illinois	New York	West Virginia
Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky	North Carolina	Wisconsin
Louisiana	North Dakota	United States: Federal employees [1]
	Ohio	
	Pennsylvania	

[1] This act also covers employees of the District of Columbia.

Public employees are partially included in the laws of 13 additional States:

Alabama	Massachusetts	Texas
Delaware	New Mexico	Washington
Georgia	Oklahoma	Wyoming
Kansas	Oregon	
Maryland	Philippine Islands	

In four States (Alaska, Missouri, New Hampshire, and Tennessee) public employees are excluded, although in Missouri and Tennessee the law authorizes an affirmative acceptance of its provisions by the State, county, etc., and in New Hampshire the Governor and council, upon petition and hearing, may award compensation to State employees.

Employments Excluded Specifically

Agriculture and domestic service.—Agricultural employees are excluded either expressly or impliedly from the operation of all workmen's compensation laws except in California (but only when the employer's pay roll has exceeded $500 in the preceding year), Connecticut, Hawaii, New Jersey, Ohio, Puerto Rico, and Vermont. Domestic servants are also excluded in all States except New Jersey. In most States, employers and employees in these occupations may elect to come within the coverage of the compensation law, although in some States it appears that their exclusion is intended to be absolute. Employees engaged in threshing grain, etc., are specifically covered in

Kentucky, Minnesota (commercial threshermen and balers), and South Dakota, and the Philippine act covers employees engaged in the operation of mechanical implements in agriculture.

Other exclusions.—Employees whose employment is casual and not in the usual course of the employer's trade or business are generally excluded. In a few States employees receiving more than a designated wage are also excluded, and in some States clerical and certain other occupations not considered to be hazardous are not included. Questions involving the coverage of loaned employees, casual employees and independent contractors have caused much dispute and have been settled in various ways by court decision. The common-law rules determining the master-servant relation or the question of agency have been followed in most instances.

Occupational Diseases

As originally enacted, none of the workmen's compensation acts provided for the payment of benefits for disability resulting from an occupational disease. It is now generally realized, however, that it is just as important for workmen to be protected from occupational diseases as from accidental injuries.

There are three usual methods of covering disability resulting from occupational diseases. Some of the States compensating for occupational diseases list the specific diseases which are compensable, while in other States the law provides compensation for any disability resulting from an occupational disease. In a few States, the workmen's compensation act uses the word "injury" instead of the word "accident" and the courts in some cases have construed this to mean that any injury resulting from an occupational disease is compensable.

Disabilities due to some or all occupational diseases are compensable in the following 27 States:

California
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia
Hawaii
Illinois
Indiana
Kentucky
Massachusetts
Michigan
Minnesota
Missouri
Nebraska
New Jersey
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Ohio
Pennsylvania
Philippine Islands
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
Washington
West Virginia
Wisconsin
United States:
Civil Employees' Act
Longshoremen's Act

Election

There are 33 States which have elective workmen's compensation laws. In the following 23 States election is presumed in the absence of

positive rejection, this presumption affecting both the employer and employee:

Alabama	Iowa	Oregon
Alaska	Kansas	Pennsylvania
Colorado	Louisiana	South Carolina
Connecticut	Missouri	South Dakota
Delaware	Nebraska	Tennessee
Florida	New Jersey	Vermont
Georgia	New Mexico	Virginia
Indiana [1]	North Carolina	

[1] Compulsory as to coal mining and public employers.

In the other elective States the employer must take positive action, but, if he acts, the employee's acceptance is presumed, except in Kentucky, where he must sign an acceptance. The acceptances are filed with designated State authorities in 7 States (Kentucky, Maine, Michigan, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island), while the act of securing insurance signifies election in Massachusetts, Texas,[5] and West Virginia.[6]

Extraterritorial Effect of the Law

In about two-thirds of the States the workmen's compensation laws are applicable to accidents happening outside of the State. Generally, the law specifies that the contract of hire shall have been made within the State and either that the employee is a resident of the State or that the employer's place of business is within the State. In 15 States, the law contains no statement as to whether it applies to accidents happening outside the State, but the courts of some of these States have interpreted the law as being applicable to such accidents.

The different States have various other provisions, presumably enacted in an effort to limit the extraterritorial application of the law, but Indiana declares that the law applies to an accidental injury occurring in another State or in a foreign country; Hawaii provides that jurisdiction of the several boards extends to injuries occurring on vessels operated by residents of the Territory; and Maryland holds the law applicable to miners working in parts of mines extending underground into another State. In Pennsylvania the law is applicable to employees temporarily outside the State for not more than 90 days and performing service for an employer whose place of business is within the State. The Utah law, after stating that the act applies to injuries received outside the State if the workman was hired in the State, also declares that a workman hired outside the State is entitled to compensation under the laws of the State in which he was hired, and is entitled to enforce his rights against his employer in the courts of Utah.

[5] Compulsory as to motorbus companies.
[6] Notice must be posted in place of business.

Suits for Damages

Where both parties have accepted the act, suits for damages are generally forbidden, but in New Hampshire (an elective State) after an injury the employee may choose whether he will proceed under the workmen's compensation act or sue for damages at common law. In most of the States having an elective act, if the employer has accepted the act, an employee who has rejected it may sue, but in this case the employer retains the common-law defenses.

Upon failure of the employer to secure payment of compensation or to provide the insurance required by the act or to pay the premiums, the employee may bring an action for damages, with the common-law defenses removed, in the following States:

Arizona
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Delaware
District of Columbia
Florida
Indiana
Iowa
Kentucky
Maryland
Michigan
Minnesota
Missouri
Montana
Nebraska
Nevada
New Mexico
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota [1]
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Puerto Rico
Rhode Island
South Carolina
South Dakota
Tennessee
Texas
Utah
Virginia
Washington
West Virginia
Wyoming
United States: Longshoremen's Act

[1] An illegally employed minor may elect after injury.

In 9 States, if there is an "intent" on the part of the employer to injure or if the injury is due to his gross negligence or willful misconduct, the employee may bring suit. These States are as follows:

Arizona
Kentucky [1]
Maryland
New Hampshire [2]
Oregon
Texas
Utah
Washington
West Virginia

[1] An illegally employed minor may elect after injury.
[2] An employee has option after injury to sue at law or to collect compensation under the act.

In the following 15 States, no suits are permitted after both the employer and the employee have accepted the provisions of the compensation act:

Alabama
Alaska
Georgia
Hawaii
Idaho
Illinois [1]
Kansas
Louisiana
Maine
Massachusetts
New Jersey [1]
Pennsylvania
Philippines
Vermont
Wisconsin

[1] An illegally employed minor may elect after injury.

Waiting Time

All of the States except Oregon provide that during a specified period of time immediately following the injury, compensation shall

not be paid. This waiting time ranges from a minimum of 1 day to a maximum of 14 days in the various States, with the majority requiring a 7-day waiting period. This period for which no compensation is paid has no relation to the requirement to provide medical and hospital care, as the employee is entitled to these immediately. In most of the States if the disability continues for a certain number of weeks, the payment of compensation is retroactive to the date of injury. Table 3 shows the number of waiting days required by each State, and in the last column is given the number of weeks of disability required for the payment of compensation from the date of the injury.

TABLE 3.—*Waiting Time Required by Each State*

No waiting time	1 to 5 days	7 days	10 or 14 days	Compensation paid for waiting period if disability lasts specified time.
Oregon.	Alaska (1). Florida (4). Maryland (3). Missouri (3). Oklahoma (5). Rhode Island (4). South Carolina (3). Utah (3). Washington (3). Wisconsin (3). United States: Civil Employees (3).	Arizona. California. Connecticut. Delaware. District of Columbia. Georgia. Hawaii.[6] Idaho. Illinois. Indiana. Kansas. Kentucky. Louisiana. Maine.[9] Massachusetts. Michigan. Minnesota. Montana.[3] Nebraska. Nevada. New Hampshire. New Jersey. New Mexico. New York. North Carolina. North Dakota. Ohio. Pennsylvania.[10] Philippines.[5] Puerto Rico.[7] Tennessee. Texas. Vermont. Virginia. West Virginia. Wyoming.[1] United States: Longshoremen.	Alabama (14).[4] Colorado (10). Iowa (14).[3] South Dakota (10).[4]	Alabama (4 weeks). Arizona (2 weeks). Connecticut (4 weeks). Delaware (4 weeks). District of Columbia (7 weeks). Idaho (4 weeks).[8] Illinois (30 days).[7] Iowa.[8] Kentucky (4 weeks). Louisiana (6 weeks). Massachusetts (2 weeks). Michigan (6 weeks). Minnesota (4 weeks). Missouri (3 weeks). Montana (3 weeks). Nebraska (6 weeks). Nevada (1 week). New Hampshire (1 week). New Jersey (7 weeks). New York (5 weeks). North Carolina (4 weeks). North Dakota (1 week). Pennsylvania (4 weeks). Rhode Island (2 weeks). South Carolina (2 weeks). South Dakota (6 weeks). Tennessee (6 weeks). Texas (4 weeks). Virginia (6 weeks). West Virginia (3 weeks). Wisconsin (10 days). Wyoming (3 weeks).[1] United States: Longshoremen (7 weeks).

[1] Applies to temporary disability only.
[2] Compensation begins on date of injury in case of permanent partial disability.
[3] Resident beneficiary. If a nonresident beneficiary, waiting period is 2 weeks, but if disability continues 6 weeks, compensation payable from date of injury.
[4] Construed to mean 1 day by the Attorney General.
[5] If disability period exceeds 4 weeks, waiting period is to be reduced by 4 days, and by 1 additional day for each week the total disability exceeds 4 weeks.
[6] Total disability, but compensation payable from first day of disability in case of partial disability.
[7] Applies only to temporary total incapacity.
[8] If compensation extends beyond such number of weeks after injury, compensation for fifth, sixth, and seventh week is increased by two-thirds.
[9] In case of death, compensation is payable from date of death.
[10] No compensation to injured "work-relief employees" during first 26 weeks of disability, except in cases of permanent injuries in specific schedule or death.

Second Injuries

All of the compensation laws except those of Alaska, Louisiana, New Hampshire, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Vermont contain specific provisions regarding payment of compensation in second-injury cases.

When an employee has sustained an accident causing the loss of a member of the body and subsequently loses another in a second accident, he may become permanently and totally disabled, thus increasing the amount to be paid in the form of workmen's compensation. The States have enacted certain second-injury provisions to cope with this situation. About half of the State laws provide that compensation shall be apportioned according to the disability resulting from the injury, the last employer paying only that amount which is attributable to the second injury, while other States provide that in determining compensation for the second injury the decreased earning power (because of the first injury) shall be used as a basis in rendering the award.

"Second-injury funds" have been established in a number of States (District of Columbia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Utah, Wisconsin, and the United States (Longshoremen's Act)). These funds were created so that when a second accident occurs, the employer will have to pay only for the second injury, yet the employee is compensated for the disability resulting from the combined injuries, the balance of the award being paid from the second-injury fund.

The method of raising revenue to sustain the second-injury fund differs in the several States. One method which appears popular and satisfactory is to place in the fund the amounts awarded in fatal cases in which it has been determined that there is no person under the law entitled to compensation.

Scale of Compensation

The amounts actually payable under the various compensation acts are determined by three factors: The rate, usually a percentage of the wages; the term or period of payment; and in most States a fixed maximum or weekly total payment. The amount and method of payment also differ according to the type of the injury. The acts prescribe certain payments in case of death and in case of permanent total disability, and also have specific provisions covering permanent partial disability and temporary total disability.[7]

[7] For a discussion of the effect, upon the amount actually paid, of the method of determining the wage base of compensation, see p. 463.

Percent of wages.—Oregon,[8] Washington, and Wyoming are the only States which do not base the amount of compensation on the wage received by the injured worker. A few States provide fixed lump sums or pensions for certain injuries, but apply the percentage system to all others. In Pennsylvania, by an amendment adopted in 1937, it is provided that after the widow of a deceased worker receives compensation for 500 weeks, she is to be paid $30 per month for life. In other States, there are varying percentages for different types of injuries and in some the percentage varies with the conjugal condition and the number of children, but in most cases the prescribed percentage remains uniform for all injuries.

Maximum term and amount.—In the great majority of the laws, different maximum terms or amounts are established. It is obvious that the reduction of a workman's income by one-half or even one-third leaves a large portion of his loss uncompensated. The burden on the employer is restricted further (and transferred necessarily to the injured employee and his family), since the term of payment is fixed in most States not by the period of disability but by an arbitrary maximum; death benefits likewise rarely continue for the period of probable need, as only about 8 or 10 States provide for payment of benefits during widowhood or during the minority of children.

Table 4 shows for the various States the percent of wages paid, the maximum number of weeks during which benefits are paid, and the limitation of payments as to weekly and total amounts. This information is given in tabular form for injuries causing death, permanent total disability, permanent partial disability, and temporary total disability. In the case of permanent partial disability, in many States compensation is based on a percentage of the wage loss instead of a percentage of average weekly wages.

The limitations are in many cases more restrictive for temporary total disability than for permanent total disability, though where the latter is compensated for life, the former is as a rule compensated during the period of disability. In a few cases the rates for temporary disability are higher than for permanent disability.

Death benefits.—It will be noted that the methods provided for determining compensation for death vary considerably and do not in all cases depend upon the fact that the deceased was an actual financial benefit to his dependents. Most of the States have not been very liberal in prescribing the amount of compensation to be paid dependents, although several of the laws have been amended in recent years

[8] Except for temporary disability.

to increase the amount. In Arizona, Nevada, New York, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Washington, West Virginia, and the United States (Civil Employees Act), the law provides for the payment of benefits to a widow for life or until remarriage, and in the case of children until a specified age is reached. The majority of the other States have a similar provision but limit the total amount payable. In Utah the industrial commission is given authority to pay benefits indefinitely in meritorious cases. Oklahoma pays no death benefits.

In a few States, the death benefits are limited to monthly payments for a specified period, while others set a total maximum ranging from $3,000 to $15,000. The remarriage of the widow terminates the benefits in about half of the States, although in a few jurisdictions a lump sum is payable upon remarriage. The experience of some State commissions, as shown in their reports, indicates that a life benefit to the widow with additional amounts for each child under the age of 18 is the most rational system to adopt in rendering assistance to the dependents following the death of a workman from an industrial accident or disease.

Funeral benefits are provided in all the States, except in Oklahoma, which does not compensate for death. In some States such benefits are given only when there are no beneficiaries.

Disability benefits.—Compensation is paid in four designated classes of disability— permanent total, permanent partial, temporary total, and temporary partial. The term disability has been defined in varying ways by the courts in interpreting State compensation laws. Some hold that it means inability to earn wages, or full wages, at the work in which the employee was working at the time of the injury, while other courts have held that it means the inability to perform any kind of work which might be obtained, and some few courts have interpreted it to mean inability to secure work.

It will be observed that there is an apparent tendency to recognize the greater economic loss in case of permanent total disability than in the case of death. Death benefits continue, under 8 laws, for life or until the remarriage of the widow, while in 18 States [9] life benefits are paid for permanent total disability.

In New Jersey compensation for permanent total disability is for life or during disability, subject to the requirement that after 400 weeks the injured worker must submit to medical reexamination and also to rehabilitation if feasible.

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[9] Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and United States (civil employees).

TABLE 4.—*Minimum and Maximum Benefits Under Workm*

[Compiled as of

State	Death					Permanent total disability				
			Limit of payments					Limit of payments		
	Percent of wages	Maximum weeks	Per week		Total maximum [1]	Percent of wages	Maximum weeks	Per week		Total maximum [1]
			Minimum	Maximum				Minimum	Maximum	
Alabama	25–65	300	[2] $5.00	$18.00	$5,400	55–65	550	[2] $5.00	[3] $18.00	$7,950
Alaska					9,000					9,000
Arizona	15–66⅔	(5)				65	(6)			
California	65		4.17	25.00	5,000	65	240	4.17	25.00	[8] 6,000
Colorado	50	312	5.00	14.00	4,375	50	(6)	5.00	14.00	
Connecticut	50	312	7.00	21.00	6,552	50	520	7.00	21.00	10,920
Delaware	15–60	[12] 285	6.00	18.00	5,130	50	475	[2] 5.00	15.00	4,000
District of Columbia	15–66⅔	(5)	[2] 1.80	25.00	7,500	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	[13] 25.00	7,500
Florida	35–60	350	[2] 6.00	18.00	5,000	50–60	350	[2] 6.00	18.00	5,000
Georgia	42½	300		[16] 12.75	3,825	50	350	[2] 4.00	20.00	7,000
Hawaii	25–60	[18] 312	3.00	21.60	5,000	60	312	5.00	20.00	5,000
Idaho	10–55	[19] 400	[2] 8.00	12.00	4,800	[20] 55–60	400	8.00	16.00	[21] 6,400
Illinois					5,500	50–65	416	[22] 7.50	20.00	(23)
Indiana	55	300	[2] 8.80	16.50	5,000	55	500	[2] 8.80	16.50	5,000
Iowa	60	300	6.00	15.00	4,500	60	400	[2] 6.00	15.00	6,000
Kansas				18.00	4,000	60	416	6.00	18.00	7,488
Kentucky	65	335	5.00	12.00	4,000	65	416	5.00	15.00	6,000
Louisiana	32½–65	300	[2] 3.00	20.00	6,000	65	400	[2] 3.00	20.00	8,000
Maine	66⅔	300	6.00	18.00	4,000	66⅔	500	6.00	18.00	6,000
Maryland	66⅔	416	[2] 8.00	18.00	5,000	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	20.00	6,000
Massachusetts	66⅔	[12] 500	4.00	[25] 10.00	6,400	66⅔	(4)	[26] 9.00	18.00	
Michigan	66⅔	300	7.00	18.00	5,400	66⅔	500	7.00	18.00	9,000
Minnesota	30–66⅔	300	[2] 8.00	20.00	7,500	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	20.00	10,000
Missouri	66⅔	300	6.00	20.00	6,000	66⅔	300	6.00	20.00	[29] 6,000
Montana	30–66⅔	400	8.00	21.00	8,400	50–66⅔	500	8.00	21.00	10,500
Nebraska	66⅔	325	[2] 6.00	15.00	4,875	66⅔	300	[2] 6.00	15.00	(30)
Nevada	10–66⅔	(5)		18.46		60	(6)	6.92	13.85	(31)
New Hampshire	(32)				4,500	50	300	7.00	17.00	5,100
New Jersey	35–60	[13] 300	[2] 10.00	20.00	6,000	66⅔	400	[2] 10.00	20.00	[33] 8,000
New Mexico	20–60	300	5.00	18.00	5,400	60	550	10.00	18.00	9,900
New York	15–66⅔	(5)		23.08		66⅔	(6)	[2] 15.00	25.00	
North Carolina	60	350	7.00	18.00	6,000	60	400	7.00	18.00	6,000
North Dakota	10–66⅔	(5)	1.80	20.00	15,000	66⅔	(4)	[2] 6.00	20.00	15,000
Ohio	66⅔	[37] 416		18.75	6,500	66⅔	(6)	[2] 8.00	18.75	
Oklahoma						66⅔	500	[2] 8.00	18.00	9,000
Oregon		(5)	[38] 1.85	(35)			(4)	6.92	[39] 8.08	
Pennsylvania	15–75	[40] 500	2.78	18.00		65	500	12.00	18.00	(41)
Philippines	25–60	208	(42)		[42] 3,000	60	208	[42] 4.00	[43] 18.00	[43] 3,000
Puerto Rico					3,000	50	340	3.00	10.00	3,000
Rhode Island	50	500	6.00	16.00	8,000	50	1,000	7.00	20.00	10,000
South Carolina	60	350	5.00	25.00	6,000	60	500	5.00	25.00	6,000
South Dakota					3,000	55	(4)	[2] 7.50	15.00	3,000
Tennessee	50	400	[2] 5.00	16.00	5,000	50	550	5.00	[3] 16.00	5,000
Texas	60	360	7.00	20.00	7,200	60	401	7.00	20.00	8,020
Utah	60	[46] 312		[47] 16.00	7,500	60	260	7.00	16.00	(48)
Vermont	15–50	260	5.00		3,500	50	260	[2] 7.00	15.00	4,000
Virginia	55	300	6.00	16.00	5,000	55	500	6.00	16.00	6,000
Washington		(5)	[38] 4.62	(30)			(4)	8.08	(31)	
West Virginia		(5)	[38] 7.00	(52)		66⅔	(6)	8.00	16.00	
Wisconsin [53]	(36)		10.00	15.00	15,000	70	(6)	14.00	21.00	(37)
Wyoming			(39)	(50)	8,000			(51)	(52)	[36] 10,000
United States:										
Civil employees	10–66⅔	(5)	2.02	26.92		66⅔	(4)	[3] 13.46	26.92	
Longshoremen	15–66⅔	(5)	[3] 1.80	25.00	7,500	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	[13] 25.00	7,500

See footnotes on p. 580.

en's Compensation Laws by Extent of Disability and by States

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Permanent partial disability					Temporary total disability					State
		Limit of payments					Limit of payments			
Percent of wages	Maximum weeks	Per week		Total maximum [1]	Percent of wages	Maximum weeks	Per week		Total maximum [1]	
		Minimum	Maximum				Minimum	Maximum		
55-65	400	[2] $5.00	$18.00	$7,200	55-65	300	[2] $5.00	$18.00	$5,400	Alabama.
				7,200	65	(4)				Alaska.
55	260				[7] 65	433				Arizona.
65	240	4.17	25.00	[9] 6,000	65	240	4.17	25.00	6,000	California.
50	208	5.00	14.00	[10] 2,912	50	(4)	5.00	14.00		Colorado.
50	[11] 225	7.00	21.00	[3] 4,725	50	520	7.00	21.00	10,920	Connecticut.
50	[11] 194	[2] 5.00	15.00	2,910	50	475	[2] 5.00	15.00	4,000	Delaware.
66⅔	[14] 280	[2] 8.00	25.00	[15] 7,000	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	25.00	7,500	District of Columbia.
50-60	[11] 350	[2] 6.00	18.00	5,000	50-60	350	[2] 6.00	18.00	5,000	Florida.
50	[11] 200	[2] 4.00	20.00	[17] 5,000	50	350	[2] 4.00	20.00	7,000	Georgia.
50	312	[2] 5.00	12.00	5,000	60	312	[2] 5.00	20.00	5,000	Hawaii.
55	237		16.00	[7] 3,792	[20] 55-60	400	8.00	16.00	[21] 6,400	Idaho.
50-65	[11] 225	[22] 7.50	20.00	[24] 4,500	50-65	(4)	[22] 7.50	20.00	4,000	Illinois.
55	[11] 250	[2] 8.80	16.50	5,000	55	500	[2] 8.80	16.50	5,000	Indiana.
60	225	[2] 6.00	15.00	3,375	60	300	[2] 6.00	15.00	4,500	Iowa.
60	210		18.00	3,780	60	415	6.00	18.00	7,470	Kansas.
65	[11] 200	5.00	12.00	4,000	65	416	5.00	15.00	6,000	Kentucky.
65	[11] 200	[2] 3.00	20.00	4,000	65	300	[2] 3.00	20.00	6,000	Louisiana.
66⅔	[11] 150	6.00	18.00	2,700	66⅔	500	6.00	18.00	6,000	Maine.
66⅔	200	[2] 8.00	18.00	[17] 3,750	66⅔	312	[2] 8.00	20.00	3,750	Maryland.
	75		[27] 10.00	[17] 750	66⅔	500	[26] 9.00	18.00	4,500	Massachusetts.
66⅔	[11] 200	7.00	18.00	3,600	66⅔	500	7.00	18.00	9,000	Michigan.
66⅔	[28] 450	[2] 8.00	20.00	9,000	66⅔	300	[2] 8.00	20.00	6,000	Minnesota.
66⅔	[11] 232	6.00	20.00	4,640	66⅔	400	[2] 6.00	20.00	8,000	Missouri.
50-66⅔	[11] 200	8.00	21.00	4,200	50-66⅔	300	8.00	21.00	6,300	Montana.
66⅔	[11] 225	[2] 6.00	15.00	[17] 3,375	66⅔	300	[2] 6.00	15.00	4,500	Nebraska.
50	260	6.92	13.85	[17] 3,600	60	433	6.92	16.62	[7] 7,200	Nevada.
50	300	7.00	17.00	5,100	50	300	7.00	17.00	4,500	New Hampshire.
66⅔	[34] 230	[2] 10.00	20.00	[17] 4,600	66⅔	300	[2] 10.00	20.00	6,000	New Jersey.
60	180	10.00	18.00	[36] 3,240	60	550	10.00	18.00	9,900	New Mexico.
66⅔	[14] 312	[2] 8.00	25.00	[17] 7,800	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	25.00	5,000	New York.
60	[11] 200	7.00	18.00	[38] 3,600	60	400	7.00	18.00	6,000	North Carolina
66⅔	[11] 234	6.00	20.00	4,680	66⅔	(4)	[2] 6.00	20.00	15,000	North Dakota.
66⅔	215		18.75	[36] 4,000	66⅔	312	[2] 8.00	18.75	3,750	Ohio.
66⅔	[11] 250	[2] 8.00	18.00	4,500	66⅔	300	[2] 8.00	18.00	5,400	Oklahoma.
	208	8.08	11.54	[17] 2,400	40-66⅔	(4)	[2] 6.92	22.38		Oregon.
65	[11] 265	12.00	18.00	4,770	65	500	12.00	18.00	9,000	Pennsylvania.
50	208		[42] 10.00	[42] 3,000	60	208	[44] 4.00	[42] 18.00	[42] 3,000	Philippines.
50	300	1.50	10.00	[36] 2,000	50	104	1.50	10.00	1,040	Puerto Rico.
50	[11] 150	8.00	20.00	[17] 3,000	50	1,000	7.00	20.00	10,000	Rhode Island.
60	[11] 200	5.00	25.00	[36] 5,000	60	500	5.00	25.00	6,000	South Carolina.
[45] 55	[11] 200	[2] 7.50	15.00	[17] 3,000	55	(4)	[2] 7.50	15.00	3,000	South Dakota.
50	350	[2] 5.00	16.00	5,600	50	300	[2] 5.00	16.00	4,800	Tennessee.
60	[11] 200	7.00	20.00	4,000	60	401	7.00	20.00	8,020	Texas.
60	[11] 200		16.00	[17] 3,200	60	312	[2] 7.00	16.00	[49] 6,250	Utah.
50	[11] 170	[2] 7.00	15.00	[17] 2,550	50	260	[2] 7.00	15.00	3,900	Vermont.
55	[11] 200	6.00	16.00	3,200	55	500	6.00	16.00	6,000	Virginia
				3,000		(4)		[52]		Washington.
66⅔	[34] 340	8.00	16.00	5,440	66⅔	78	8.00	16.00	1,248	West Virginia.
70	[53] 500	14.00	21.00	[37] 10,500	70	(4)	7.35	21.00	[37]	Wisconsin.
		[51]	[52]	[17] 2,500		(4)	[51]	[54]	[26]	Wyoming.
										United States:
66⅔	(4)		26.92		66⅔	(4)	[2] 13.46	26.92		Civil employees.
66⅔	[14] 280	[2] 8.00	25.00	[15] 7,000	66⅔	(4)	[2] 8.00	25.00	7,500	Longshoremen.

(Footnotes continued from pp. 578 and 579)

[1] Total maximum payments computed by Bureau of Labor Statistics, where not stipulated by law.
[2] Or actual wages, if less than minimum amount listed.
[3] $5 after 400 weeks.
[4] During period of disability.
[5] During widowhood, or specified minority age of children.
[6] Life.
[7] Plus $10 per month for dependents.
[8] Plus 40 percent of wages thereafter for life.
[9] Plus life pension of from 1 to 40 percent for over 60 percent disability.
[10] In addition to temporary total disability. In case of permanent partial disability not given in schedule, maximum compensation allowed is $3,640. There is also an additional amount for disfigurement.
[11] In cases of permanent partial disability not listed in schedule, compensation may be allowed for a greater number of weeks.
[12] Payments continue to children until they reach specified age.
[13] In addition to compensation, employee undergoing vocational rehabilitation is paid cost of maintenance, maximum $10 weekly.
[14] In case of permanent partial disability not given in schedule, compensation is paid during disability.
[15] In addition to compensation for temporary total disability. There is also an additional amount for disfigurement.
[16] Under an agreement with insurance carriers $17 is the maximum payment. (See A. B. C. Reporter, April 1938, p. 13.)
[17] In addition to compensation for total disability.
[18] Payments continue to children until they become 16, and if unmarried and incapable of self-support, for 104 weeks thereafter.
[19] In case of an incapacitated unmarried child, payments continue 400 weeks after reaching 18 years of age.
[20] Award is increased 5 percent for each dependent child.
[21] Plus $8 per week thereafter.
[22] Minimum is $11 when 1 child under 16, $12 when 2, $13 when 3, and $14 when 4 or more.
[23] Plus life pension of from 8 to 12 percent of total previous payments.
[24] In addition to payments for total disability for period not to exceed 64 weeks.
[25] If widow alone, $10 per week; $2 additional for each child under 18.
[26] Or actual wages, if less than minimum amount listed, but not less than $7, if employee's normal working hours are 15 or more per week.
[27] $10 is paid in all cases.
[28] Includes healing and rehabilitation periods of 25 weeks each.
[29] Plus 25 percent of wages thereafter for life.
[30] Plus 45 percent of wages thereafter, subject to a minimum of $4.50 (or actual wages if less than minimum) and a maximum of $10.
[31] Plus additional allowance for constant attendant if necessary.
[32] 150 times the average weekly earnings, not to exceed $4,500.
[33] Employee submitting to physical or educational rehabilitation receives compensation after 400 weeks at a reduced rate in proportion to earning capacity.
[34] Cumulative for two or more specified injuries, with total maximum period of 500 weeks.
[35] $30 per month for widow or wife, plus $8 per month for each dependent child.
[36] Plus additional amount for disfigurement.
[37] For the remainder of the period between date of death and 416 weeks after date of injury.
[38] Or 50 percent of previous average monthly support for certain dependents.
[39] Plus $8 monthly for each dependent child.
[40] Continues after 500 weeks to widow until remarriage, and to children until they become 18.
[41] Compensation continues after 500 weeks at the rate of $30 a month until death.
[42] In computing death benefits, the average weekly wages are to be reckoned at not more than 30 pesos nor less than 4. The act does not specify minimum or maximum payments.
[43] Pesos.
[44] Pesos. Actual wages if less than minimum amount listed.
[45] In case of permanent partial disability not given in schedule, compensation is paid at the rate of 50 percent of wages.
[46] For the remainder of the period between the date of death and 312 weeks after the date of injury.
[47] Award is increased 10 percent for each dependent minor child not to exceed 5.
[48] Award is increased 5 percent for each dependent minor child, not to exceed 5, and after payment for 260 weeks, compensation will be paid at the rate of 45 percent of average weekly wages for life.
[49] Award is increased 5 percent for each dependent minor child not to exceed 5, with maximum of $20 weekly and total maximum amount of $6,250.
[50] $55 per month to widow with 2 children, plus $5 for each additional child.
[51] $60 per month, if wife and 2 children, plus $5 for each additional child, plus $25 for constant attendant, if necessary.
[52] Same as for permanent disability (see footnote 28) except $5 per month additional during first 6 months.
[53] $30 per month to widow, plus $5 for each child.
[54] Payment for life if disability is over 85 percent.
[55] Amounts given are increased or decreased up to 15 percent for employers or employees violating safety regulations—treble compensation for minors illegally employed.
[56] Compensation allowed equals 4 times average annual wage, payable in installments of 50 percent of average weekly wage, but total payment for death, plus disability compensation, may not exceed 70 percent of weekly wage for periods ranging from 280 to 1,000 weeks, depending on age. Additional compensation is allowed to dependent spouse with dependent children, according to age.
[57] In addition to compensation, employee receiving rehabilitation instruction is paid cost of maintenance, maximum $10 weekly, maximum period 20 weeks.
[58] Plus 70 percent of earnings for healing period. In case of permanent partial disability, not listed in schedule, maximum period is 1,000 weeks.
[59] $180 per year to 1 child.
[60] $50 per month for widow, total $3,000. Plus $180 per year for each child, total $5,000.
[61] $50 per month.
[62] $70 per month, plus $180 per year for each child.
[63] $70 per month.
[64] $90 per month.

Periods of Benefit for Permanent Partial Disability

Awards of compensation for injuries causing permanent partial disability are made by two methods—payment of a percentage of the wage loss and payment for fixed periods for specified injuries. In most States these two methods exist side by side, all the laws but that of New Hampshire and the Federal civil employees statute having schedules covering certain specified injuries, while those not included therein are compensated on a percentage basis. In Alaska, Washington, and Wyoming the payments are fixed sums, but in all other States the scheduled payments are weekly amounts based on wages.

In some States the scheduled provisions provide for payments in addition to the period of total disability (healing period) or they may cover the entire allowance for the injury other than medical aid. Such payments are exclusive in 26 States [10] and are in addition to the healing period in 25 States.[11] In Maine the payment prescribed in the schedule is in lieu of temporary-total-disability payments, but a subsequent partial disability is compensated for not more than 300 weeks from the date of the injury. Under the Massachusetts law, compensation is paid for the period of total disability and also for partial disability after the scheduled period; the same is true in Rhode Island, subject to a maximum period of 300 weeks. Schedule payments are normally in lieu of all other payments under the New York and District of Columbia laws and also the Longshoremen's Act, but if the period of total temporary disability is protracted beyond designated periods the schedule period is extended correspondingly. In Georgia a uniform period of 10 weeks is allowed as healing time. The number of weeks provided by law during which compensation is payable for a specified injury under the compensation laws of the several States is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Weeks for Which Compensation is Payable for Specified Injuries, by States*

State	Loss of—													
	Arm (at shoulder)	Hand	Thumb	Index finger	Middle finger	Ring finger	Little finger	Leg (at hip)	Foot	Great toe	Other toe	Sight of 1 eye	Hearing, 1 ear	Hearing, both ears
Ala.[1]	200	150	60	45	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	------	150
Ariz.[2]	[3] 260	[4] 217	65	39	30	22	17	217	173	30	11	130	87	260
Calif.[1]	[5] 246	[5] 186	[5] 42	[5] 34	[5] 25	[5] 25	[5] 16	[5] 246	[5] 166	[5] 34	[5] 8	[5] 125	[5] 42	[5] 166
Colo.[2]	208	104	50	26	18	11	13	208	104	26	11	139	35	139
Conn.[3]	225	175	60	38	30	25	20	208	156	38	13	208	52	156
Del.[1]	194	158	60	35	30	20	15	194	135	30	10	113	------	------
D. C.[6]	280	212	51	28	18	17	7	248	173	26	8	140	52	200
Fla.[1]	200	150	60	35	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	40	150
Ga.[2]	200	150	30	35	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	------	150
Hawaii [3]	312	244	60	46	30	25	15	288	205	38	16	128	60	312

See footnotes at end of table.

[10] Alabama, Alaska, California, Delaware, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Philippines, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

[11] Arizona, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, Wyoming, and United States (Longshoremen's Act).

TABLE 5.—*Number of Weeks for Which Compensation is Payable for Specified Injuries by States*—Continued

State	Loss of—													
	Arm (at shoulder)	Hand	Thumb	Index finger	Middle finger	Ring finger	Little finger	Leg (at hip)	Foot	Great toe	Other toe	Sight of 1 eye	Hearing, 1 ear	Hearing, both ears
Idaho [7]	240	200	70	40	40	30	20	180	125	30	12	140	35	150
Ill.[3]	225	170	70	40	35	25	20	190	135	35	12	120	50	125
Ind.[1]	250	200	60	40	35	30	20	200	150	60	([8])	150	----	200
Iowa [1]	225	150	40	30	25	20	15	200	125	25	15	100	50	150
Kans.[1]	210	150	60	37	30	20	15	200	125	30	10	110	25	100
Ky.[1]	200	150	[9] 60	[9] 45	[9] 30	[9] 20	[9] 15	200	125	30	10	100	----	----
La.[1]	200	150	50	30	20	20	20	175	125	20	10	100	----	----
Maine [10]	150	125	50	30	25	18	15	150	125	25	10	100	----	----
Md.[3]	200	150	50	30	25	20	15	175	150	25	10	100	50	100
Mass.[11]	[12] 50	[13] 50	40	20	12	12	12	50	50	12	12	50	----	----
Mich.[1]	200	150	60	35	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	----	----
Minn.[3]	200	175	60	35	30	20	15	200	150	30	10	100	52	156
Mo.[1]	[13] 232	[14] 175	[15] 60	[16] 45	[17] 35	[17] 35	[18] 22	207	150	40	14	118	44	168
Mont.[1]	200	150	60	30	30	20	12	200	125	30	12	120	20	120
Nebr.[3]	225	175	60	35	30	20	15	215	150	30	10	125	50	100
Nev.[2]	[3] 260	[4] 217	65	39	30	22	17	217	173	30	11	130	87	260
N. J.[3]	230	175	65	40	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	40	160
N. Mex.[1]	180	110	50	25	20	15	12	180	100	30	12	125	35	135
N. Y.[5]	312	244	75	46	30	25	15	288	205	38	16	160	60	150
N. C.[1]	200	150	60	35	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	70	150
N. Dak.[1]	234	195	45	29¼	24¾	15¾	13½	234	136½	19½	7½	100	29¼	156
Ohio [3]	215	165	[9] 60	[9] 35	[9] 30	[9] 20	[9] 15	190	140	30	10	125	----	----
Okla.[1]	250	200	60	35	30	20	15	175	150	30	10	100	----	----
Oreg.[2]	208	165	52	35	20	17	13	191	139	22	9	87	78	208
Pa.[1]	265	200	75	50	40	20	15	250	175	60	([19])	200	40	150
P. I.[1]	208	160	40	30	25	20	10	190	130	25	10	100	40	208
P. R.[3]	300	[20] 200	50	35	25	25	15	250	160	25	15	160	25	200
R. I.[3]	100	80	50	36	26	20	18	100	80	30	10	80	----	----
S. C.[1]	200	150	60	35	30	20	15	175	125	[20]	10	100	70	150
S. Dak.[2]	200	150	50	35	30	20	15	160	125	30	[21] 10	100	----	----
Tenn.[1]	200	150	60	35	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	----	150
Tex.[1]	200	150	[9] 60	[9] 45	[9] 30	[9] 21	[9] 15	200	125	30	10	100	----	150
Utah [3]	200	150	60	30	30	20	12	180	125	30	12	120	----	----
Vt.[3]	170	140	40	25	20	15	10	170	120	20	8	100	42½	170
Va.[1]	200	150	60	35	30	20	15	175	125	30	10	100	50	----
W. Va.[3]	240	200	80	40	28	20	20	180	140	40	16	132	----	----
Wis.[2]	500	333⅓	125	50	40	30	30	500	250	83⅓	[22] 25	275	50	333⅓
U. S.[23]	280	212	51	28	18	17	7	248	173	26	8	140	52	200

[1] Payments under this schedule are exclusive of or in lieu of all other payments.
[2] Payments under this schedule are in addition to payments for temporary total disability during the healing period. [3] For loss of major arm; for the loss of a minor arm, 217 weeks.
[4] For loss of major hand; for the loss of a minor hand, 173 weeks.
[5] Compensation varies with occupation and age. Figures given are for laborer 45 years of age.
[6] In lieu of other payments unless period of temporary total disability exceeds fixed periods for each class of injury.
[7] Payments under this schedule are in addition to payments for temporary total disability during the healing period. 99 percent of specific schedule to be paid employee. Employer must pay 2 percent additional to specific indemnity fund.
[8] For the loss of second toe, 30 weeks; third toe, 20 weeks; fourth toe, 15 weeks; and fifth toe, 10 weeks.
[9] For the loss of a metacarpal bone for corresponding thumb, finger, or fingers, 10 weeks is added to number of weeks.
[10] Payments cover total disability. Partial disability based upon wage loss may be compensated at end of period given for not over 300 weeks in all.
[11] Payments under this schedule are in addition to payments for temporary total and permanent partial disability. [12] Right arm or hand, 75 weeks. [13] For loss of minor arm, 212 weeks.
[14] For loss of minor hand, 160 weeks. [15] For loss of thumb on minor hand, 55 weeks.
[16] For loss of index finger on minor hand, 40 weeks. [17] For loss of finger on minor hand, 30 weeks.
[18] For loss of little finger on minor hand, 16 weeks.
[19] For loss of first toe, 35 weeks; second toe, 30 weeks. [20] For loss of left hand, 180 weeks.
[21] For the additional loss of 1 or more of the toes other than the great toe, an additional period of 10 weeks.
[22] For loss of second toe, 30 weeks.
[23] Longshoremen. In lieu of other payments unless period of temporary total disability exceeds fixed period for each class of injury.

Medical Benefits

In all of the States medical aid is required to be furnished to injured employees. As indicated by table 6, in 16 States neither the amount nor the time during which aid shall be rendered is limited; 12 other States place a limitation on the amount but set no limit on the time; while 12 States limit the time but place no restriction on the amount; and in 13 States both the amount and time are limited.

TABLE 6.—*States Limiting Time and Amount of Medical Benefits*

Neither time nor amount limited	No limitation on amount	No limitation on time	Both amount and time limited
California.	Alaska.	Florida.	Alabama.
Connecticut.	Arizona.	Iowa.	Colorado.
District of Columbia.	Indiana.	Louisiana.	Delaware.[1]
Hawaii.	Massachusetts.	Maryland.	Georgia.[1]
Idaho.	Michigan.	New Jersey.	Kansas.[1]
Illinois.	Nevada.	New Mexico.	Kentucky.[1]
Minnesota.	New Hampshire.	Ohio.	Maine.[1]
Nebraska.	North Carolina.[2]	Oregon.	Missouri.[1]
New York.[3]	Oklahoma.	Rhode Island.	Montana.
North Dakota.	South Carolina.	Utah.	Pennsylvania.
Philippines.	Texas.	West Virginia.	South Dakota.
Puerto Rico.	Virginia.	Wyoming.	Tennessee.
Washington.[4]			Vermont.
Wisconsin.[4]			
United States:			
Civil employees.			
Longshoremen.			

[1] Additional services in special cases or in discretion of commission.
[2] Except in case of treatment for silicosis or asbestosis.
[3] In case of disability resulting from inhalation of harmful dust, period of treatment is limited.
[4] Virtually unlimited under administrative practice.

Medical benefits are without cost to the workmen in the great majority of the States, but in Alaska the employer may deduct from the employee's wages $2.50 per month to maintain a medical fund, while in Arizona and Nevada one-half the cost but not over $1 per month may be deducted, and one-half the cost is paid by the workman in Washington. Table 7 presents in greater detail the provisions regarding medical benefits:

TABLE 7.—*Maximum Periods and Amounts of Medical Service, by States*

State	Maximum period	Maximum amount	State	Maximum period	Maximum amount
Alabama	90 days [1]	$200.	New Hampshire	30 days	Unlimited.
Alaska	1 year	Unlimited.[2]	New Jersey	Unlimited	$100.[3]
Arizona	90 days [3]	Do.[3]	New Mexico	do	$400.
California	Unlimited	Do.	New York [7]	do	Unlimited.
Colorado	4 months [4]	$500.	North Carolina	10 weeks [3]	Do.[8]
Connecticut	Unlimited	Unlimited.	North Dakota	Unlimited	Do.
Delaware	30 days [3]	$150.[3]	Ohio	do	$200.[3]
District of Columbia	Unlimited	Unlimited.	Oklahoma	60 days [3]	Unlimited.
Florida	do	$250.[5]	Oregon	Unlimited	$250.[3]
Georgia	10 weeks [3]	$500.	Pennsylvania	3 months	$200.[3]
Hawaii	Unlimited	Unlimited.	Philippines	Unlimited	Unlimited.
Idaho	do	Do.	Puerto Rico	do	Do.
Illinois	do	Do.	Rhode Island	Unlimited	$200.[9]
Indiana	90 days [1]	Do.	South Carolina	10 weeks [3]	Unlimited.
Iowa	Unlimited	$600.	South Dakota	12 weeks	$200.
Kansas	60 days	$100.[3]	Tennessee	30 days [1]	$200.
Kentucky	90 days [3]	$200.[3]	Texas	4 weeks [3]	Unlimited.
Louisiana	Unlimited	$250.	Utah	Unlimited	$500.[3]
Maine	30 days [3]	$100.[3]	Vermont	2 weeks	$50.[10]
Maryland	Unlimited	$500.	Virginia	60 days [11]	Unlimited.
Massachusetts	2 weeks [3]	Unlimited.	Washington	([12] [3])	Do.
Michigan	90 days	Do.	West Virginia	Unlimited	$800.
Minnesota	Unlimited	Do.	Wisconsin	do	Unlimited.
Missouri	90 days [3]	$750.	Wyoming	do	$300.[13]
Montana	6 months	$500.[6]	United States:		
Nebraska	Unlimited	Unlimited.	Civil employees	do	Unlimited.
Nevada	6 months [3]	Unlimited.[2]	Longshoremen	do	Do.

[1] Additional service may be given at option of employer.
[2] Employees contribute.
[3] Additional service in special cases or at discretion of commission.
[4] In case of hernia, if employee requires operation he is entitled to service without limitation of time.
[5] In surgical cases maximum may be increased by order of commission to $500.
[6] A special operating fee of $100 allowed in case of hernia.
[7] In case of disability resulting from inhalation of harmful dust, period of treatment is limited to 90 days, but may be extended for an additional 90 days by the Industrial Board.
[8] Medical or other treatment for asbestosis or silicosis shall be limited to 3 years and a maximum cost of $334 per year.
[9] In case of employee receiving hospital treatment for more than 14 days, the maximum is $250.
[10] Also hospital first 30 days, maximum $150.
[11] Extended in unusual cases. Not to exceed 180 days.
[12] In case of temporary disability, continues not longer than period of compensation, and in case of permanent disability not beyond the date of award.
[13] Additional expenditure of not more than $150 for medical service and $150 for hospital treatment may be authorized by court.

Administration and Settlement of Claims

There are two general methods of administration of the workmen's compensation laws: (1) By an administrative commission or board created for the purpose of enforcing the provisions of the law, and (2) by the courts. When administration is left to the courts it is usually because no other machinery for administration has been created and this law, like other laws, is enforced in the various Federal, State, and county courts.

The desirability of an administrative agency charged specifically with the supervision of the compensation laws is recognized by all but seven States (Alabama, Alaska, Louisiana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Tennessee, and Wyoming). However, in Alabama there is limited supervision by the superintendent of insurance who is compensation commissioner ex officio, and in Wyoming the workmen's compensation fund is under the supervision of the State treasurer. In these seven States the agreement between the parties may be without supervision or there may be provision for approval by the court. Summary procedure is generally directed, but a jury trial may be demanded in certain cases.

It is generally agreed that administration of a workmen's compensation act by an administrative agency is more satisfactory than by the courts. The major difficulties of court administration have been summed up as (1) delay, (2) cost, and (3) the unfitness of the courts for the settlement of compensation claims. A complete understanding of industrial conditions is essential in a successful administration of the laws. The vital factors in successful administration are the giving of prompt, honest, and full compensation and immediate medical aid, as required by the law. To achieve these purposes an administrative board or commission is almost essential.

In States where the law is administered by a commission or board appeals to courts are usually limited to questions of law, the determination of facts being left to the exclusive jurisdiction of the commission.

Accident Reporting and Prevention

The workmen's compensation acts of only 25 States [12] require that reports be made of all industrial accidents. In 12 States [13] the acts require reports of accidents which cause disability of 1 day or more, while Rhode Island requires reports of all accidents causing disability for more than 2 days, Maryland, North Carolina, and South Carolina

[12] Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Puerto Rico, South Dakota, Utah, Virginia, Washington, Wyoming, and the United States (Civil Employees and Longshoremen's Acts).

[13] 1 day: California, Connecticut, Hawaii, Idaho, Philippines, and Vermont. More than 1 day: Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, New York, and Texas.

of accidents causing disability for more than 3 days, Georgia [14] and Tennessee when disability is for 1 week, Illinois when disability is for more than 1 week, and Alabama when the disability is for more than 2 weeks. Under the New Jersey law insured employers are required to report all accidents, while uninsured employers must report those causing disability for more than 1 week or causing permanent total disability. In Minnesota all accidents causing death or serious injury must be reported, as well as other accidents causing disability for more than 1 day. In Nebraska, New Hampshire, West Virginia, and Wisconsin, accident reports are submitted in the manner and at the times required by the administrative authorities. While there is no provision requiring reports in the workmen's compensation act, Alaska by a separate act provides for the reporting of accidents in coal mines.

These provisions of the State compensation laws clearly illustrate the lack of uniformity on the subject of accident reporting. The importance of complete reports showing causes, nature, severity, and costs has been too little recognized, even among those charged with the administration of the laws, while the employer has been too prone to minimize or disregard the occurrence of accidents except as an unfortunate incident, involving some form of liability.

Existing deficiencies in the compensation laws in regard to accident reporting and prevention are offset to some extent by the fact that most industrial States have inspection agencies which are charged with the duties of prevention of accidents, chiefly by way of enforcing safety statutes, although some agencies also prescribe standards. Some development has been made in the direction of combining compensation administration with the enforcement of labor laws generally, although the majority of the States distribute the responsibility between several agencies. However, in 21 States [15] the agency administering the compensation law is also given certain additional powers as to safety devices, inspection, etc.

Cost of Compensation

In almost all of the States having compensation laws the cost of compensation is borne entirely by the employer, although in States having a State insurance fund some small part of the cost is shifted to the public. In the following States the employees are allowed to make contributions: Oregon, in which deductions of 1 percent of wages are made to cover the cost of compensation; Alaska, Arizona, Nevada, and Washington, where employees contribute to the medical

[14] Or accident requiring medical aid.

[15] Arizona, California, Colorado, Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Montana, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Puerto Rico, Utah, Vermont, Washington, and West Virginia.

benefit fund; and in Colorado, Idaho, Kentucky, Montana, and Oregon, where the employees may contribute toward cooperative hospitals, etc.

Nonresident Alien Dependents

None of the workmen's compensation acts makes any distinction between resident aliens and resident citizens, but a large number have discriminatory provisions in the laws affecting nonresident alien dependents. Under the liability system, the rule had become almost universal that such dependents should have the same status as residents or citizens of the States; but of the 22 State compensation laws on the statute books at the close of the year 1913, nearly one-third (7) made discriminations unfavorable to such claimants, while in 1916, of 35 States, nearly one-half effected discriminations. At the present time, of 53 laws analyzed, 38 have provisions more or less discriminatory, so that an increasing tendency in the direction of less favorable treatment is noted. Such discrimination may be by way of exclusion, reduced benefits, permitting commutations to lump sums in reduced amounts, restricting possible beneficiaries to persons of a designated relationship (a provision that may exist alone or in connection with reduced benefits), not extending the presumption of dependency to aliens who are nonresidents, or excluding payments to beneficiaries in countries with which the United States does not maintain diplomatic relations.

Nonresident aliens are placed on the same footing as residents in 5 States, while in 10 they are not mentioned. The laws of a number of States except residents of Canada from the discriminatory provisions, or declare such provisions subject to conflicting terms of any treaty, or deny all benefits to aliens whose national laws would exclude citizens of the United States in like circumstances. Table 8 analyzes the provisions regarding nonresident alien dependents.

TABLE 8.—*States Having Discriminatory Provisions Regarding Nonresident Alien Dependents*[1]

TABLE 8.—*States Having Discriminatory Provisions Regarding Nonresident Alien Dependents* [1]

Exclusion	Reduced benefits	Permitting commutations to lump sums in reduced amounts	Restricting possible beneficiaries	Presumption of dependency destroyed	Excluding payments to dependents in countries not maintaining diplomatic relations with United States	Placed on same footing as resident dependents	No provision
Alabama. Hawaii. New Mexico. Philippines. South Dakota.	Alaska. Arizona. Colorado. Delaware. Florida. Georgia. Idaho.[3] Illinois. Iowa.[3] Kansas. Kentucky. Maine. Michigan. Montana.[3] Nevada. Oregon. Pennsylvania. Utah. Virginia. Washington. West Virginia. Wyoming.	District of Columbia Kentucky. Maryland. Nebraska. New York. North Carolina. Oklahoma. Pennsylvania. South Carolina. West Virginia. United States: Civil employees. Longshoremen.	Delaware. District of Columbia. Florida. Illinois. Kentucky. Maryland. Montana. Nebraska. New York. North Carolina. Oregon. Pennsylvania. South Carolina. Washington. West Virginia. Wisconsin. Wyoming. United States: Longshoremen.	California.	Washington.	Connecticut.[2] Minnesota. Ohio. Tennessee. Texas.	Indiana. Louisiana. Massachusetts. Missouri. New Hampshire. New Jersey. North Dakota. Puerto Rico. Rhode Island. Vermont.

[1] The provisions are subject to change by treaties between the United States and foreign countries.
[2] If dependents as defined under the law are nonresidents and there are residents who are dependents in fact, compensation may be apportioned between them.
[3] If foreign government excludes payment to United States citizens then payments are excluded under State law.

Profit Sharing

PROFIT SHARING IN TWO MANUFACTURING COMPANIES

TWO different bases for profit sharing are illustrated in the plans of two manufacturing companies for which data were recently received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

One plan provides that a sum equal to the total of all employees' average weekly earnings is set aside. After specified dividends are deducted from the net earnings of the company, a sum equal to 25 percent of the remainder is added to the employees' fund. The total of these two sums is then divided equally among all qualifying employees.

Under the second plan, in addition to their basic rates of pay, employees receive 1 percent additional for each $60,000 net income above $600,000 earned by the company during the 3 preceding months. Thus, under this arrangement, each employee benefits in accordance with his individual wages and the company's earnings, and he receives his share of the profits each pay day, instead of annually.

Selby Plan

The profit-sharing plan of The Selby Shoe Co., Portsmouth, Ohio, was established by an agreement between that company and the United Shoe Workers of America (C. I. O.). The plan affects some 2,500 employees of the company, which manufactures women's shoes. The features of the plan are as follows:

> Recognizing the fact that the interests of the company and its employees are largely mutual, and that both depend chiefly for their financial returns on the general success of the business, it is agreed generally that after labor has had fair wages, and capital a fair return, that the balance of the net profits be divided as hereinafter provided:
>
> First, there shall be set aside for employees on the general pay roll who have been continuously employed during the previous fiscal year, a sum equal to the total of their average week's earnings;
>
> Second, there shall be set aside for payment of dividends, or additions to surplus, an amount equal to 6 percent of the book value of the capital stock of the business;
>
> Third, there shall be added to the employees' fund, a second amount, equal to 25 percent of the earnings left after the amount for dividends or surplus has been deducted;

Fourth, the sum of items 1 and 3 shall be divided equally among all qualifying employees on the last Friday in June;

Fifth, qualification requirements for participation in this fund shall be as follows:

(*a*) The employee must have been on the general pay roll during the whole of the previous fiscal year.

(*b*) He shall not have been absent more than 30 days at any one time during the year except because of injuries received at work in the plant.

In a letter to its employees the company's comments on these clauses of its agreement indicate that "the money for the average week is sure to be paid. The profit sharing, on the other hand, depends upon the success of the business. * * * The sum of the two amounts for division among employees if this plan had been in operation during the past 10 years would have varied from $40,000 in the poorest year to $110,000 in the best one."

Westinghouse Plan

According to the wage and salary payment plan established by the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Co. on May 1, 1936, wage and salary base rates are fixed in line with rates paid in the community for the same type of work.

The basis of the plan is that the company's net income for any consecutive 3 months determines the pay that each employee receives for the next succeeding month.

When the average of the monthly net income of the company for a 3-month period is $600,000, the employees receive, for the next succeeding month, their base rate of pay.

When this 3 months' average net income of the company is greater than $600,000, then each $60,000 of the increase (above $600,000) results in a 1-percent increase on the base wage or salary of each employee for the next succeeding month—so long as the average base pay roll of the company for the same 3 months is not over $5,000,000.

When the average base pay roll of the company for the said 3 months is greater than $5,000,000, then the amount of the average net income (above $600,000), which will result in a 1-percent increase of base wage or salary for the next succeeding month, is the figure which bears the same relation to $60,000 as the average base pay roll of the company for the preceding 3 months bears to $5,000,000.

When the 3 months' average net income is less than $600,000, that portion of each salaried employee's base-rate salary over $125 per month is subjected to a 1-percent reduction for each unit of $60,000 that the net income is below the $600,000 average. The plan will not automatically vary the rate of pay for hourly rated employees when the 3 months' average net income of the company falls below $600,000 per month.

If an employee is working on a piece-work incentive plan, the wage and salary plan is applied on his total "take-out"; that is, base rate plus piece-work incentive rate.

A communication from the company indicates that the percentage paid since the inception of the plan in May 1936 is as follows:

	Percent paid in—				*Percent paid in—*		
	1936	*1937*	*1938*		*1936*	*1937*	*1938*
January	--	13	9	July	13	15	3
February	--	13	4	August	14	16	1
March	--	14	3	September	9	15	
April	--	15	1	October	8	13	
May	9	15	3	November	10	12	
June	11	15	5	December	12	10	

Industrial Relations

DEVELOPMENT OF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING IN METAL MINING

Unionization Among Metal Miners

WESTERN FEDERATION OF MINERS

THE first metal miners' union was established in 1867 in Nevada. In 1877, unions were formed in the Black Hills of South Dakota, and in the following year the miners of Butte, Mont., organized. Although several unions came into existence in the Colorado mining camps between 1885 and 1890, the formation of the Western Federation of Miners in 1893 was the first attempt to combine these scattered local unions into one organization. Affiliation with the American Federation of Labor was voted in 1896, but the Western Federation never paid per capita taxes to that organization, and voted in the following year to return to an independent status.

Soon after the Federation was formed, the operators organized the Mine Owners' Association. Thereafter took place some of the bitterest industrial conflicts in American labor history—at Leadville in 1896, Salt Lake and Coeur d'Alene in 1899, Telluride in 1901, Idaho Springs in 1903, Cripple Creek in 1903 and 1904, Goldfield in 1907, and the Michigan copper strike in 1913. During these conflicts, which frequently assumed the aspects of local civil wars, the operators usually had the active support of the local government authorities and the press, and the unions were defeated in practically every major strike.[1]

In spite of the union's failures in these strikes, its membership continued to grow and it was able to obtain some improvements in working conditions, both directly and through political action. Through the vigorous efforts of the Federation, many of the Western States passed 8-hour-day laws for men working underground. The first such law was passed in Utah in 1896, and between 1901 and 1911 similar laws were passed in Montana, Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming, and Nevada.

Almost from the beginning of its organization the Western Federation was weakened by factional disputes. Differences within the

[1] For official reports on some of these strikes, see Labor Disturbances in Colorado (S. Doc. 122, 58th Cong., 3d sess.); Labor Troubles at Goldfield (H. Doc. 607, 60th Cong., 1st sess.); and U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 139: The Michigan Copper District Strike.

leadership came to a head with the formation of the Industrial Workers of the World in 1905. The Federation was the largest participating group in its first convention and furnished the greater part of the leadership and finances. Within little more than a year disputes over policies resulted in the withdrawal of the Western Federation, which expelled some of the union leaders who had been instrumental in the formation of the I. W. W. Although most of the miners stayed with the Federation, many followed the expelled leaders into the I. W. W. or formed independent unions.

DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL UNION OF MINE, MILL, AND SMELTER WORKERS

Estranged from the Industrial Workers of the World, the Western Federation of Miners became more friendly toward the American Federation of Labor and formally affiliated in 1911. An industrial union charter was granted, which gave the Western Federation jurisdiction over all men working in and around metal mines, except a few who had been previously organized by another A. F. of L. union.

Amalgamation with the United Mine Workers of America had been discussed from time to time. In 1912 a working unity was achieved when the A. F. of L. issued a charter to a Mining Department composed of the two miners' unions. Neither union was satisfied with the Mining Department, however, and it was dissolved within a decade, never having been very active.

With A. F. of L. affiliation, the Western Federation abandoned its long-standing opposition to written agreements with employers and endorsed the practice of signing agreements with definite termination dates and provisions for the check-off method of collecting union dues.

The Western Federation of Miners had always included workers in smelter and reduction plants as well as miners. Gradually it had extended its membership to areas east of the Mississippi River. Accordingly, the name of the union was changed in 1916 to International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers.

The union experienced a temporary revival in the Montana mines following a mine fire in 1917 which caused the deaths of 164 men. The disaster crystallized dissatisfaction in the area and a strike was called by one of the independent unions. Other miners' and craft unions joined the strike which, nevertheless, failed. In 1919 the unions again struck, but the basis of cooperation was precarious and some of the unions withdrew, causing the collapse of the strike.

Intermittent strike activity in the Arizona copper fields during the World War period also met with failure. As in Montana, the issues of radicalism and sabotage were raised, but the Mediation Commission, appointed in 1917 by the President of the United States, found that "neither sinister influences nor the Industrial Workers of the World

can account for these strikes." [2] Although the operators agreed not to discriminate against the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers, they announced that they would employ "only such men whose character and past record is such as will insure their being loyal to American principles." [3] They refused entirely to tolerate the more militant independent unions.

Divided membership and the depletion of union leadership because of factional disputes, together with the post-war opposition of the employers, eventually resulted in almost complete collapse of the union. In 1919 the membership in the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers was less than 20,000.

In addition to widespread unemployment, resulting from technological developments and drastic curtailment of copper output, the miners suffered severe wage cuts during the depression 10 years later. Copper prices declined over 70 percent from 1929 to 1932. Because of the general practice in the copper industry of gearing wages to prices, a system established by the Anaconda Copper Co. in 1907, this price decline automatically resulted in drastically decreased wages.

In June 1933 the union membership of the metal-mine workers was only 1,500; this membership was confined mostly to the Montana copper mines. With the passage of the National Industrial Recovery Act, metal miners, like other workers, were encouraged to organize.

The union first revived in the copper industry. The N. R. A. copper code, drafted before the union was strong enough to take an active part in the hearings, caused wide dissatisfaction among the workers. Complaints centered on the code minimum of 47½ cents per hour for inside labor, and the clause establishing a 40-hour-week standard merely as an average to be achieved over a 3-month period.

This situation led to a strike in May 1934, involving 5,300 employees of the Anaconda Copper Co. The chief demands of the union were the reestablishment of a weekly wage scale to supersede the contract or piece-work system and the ending of the hours clause of the code. The strike ended after 5 months, with the return to time rates, but the sliding scale based on the price of copper was retained.

After the strike, the union rapidly extended its membership and influence. By June 1934 membership had increased tenfold and consistent gains brought the union to its present membership of more than 50,000. The year 1937 saw the most rapid increase in the history of the union. The 97 union agreements signed during that year represent a geographical spread from Perth Amboy, N. J., to Juneau, Alaska.

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[2] Report on The Bisbee Deportations, President's Mediation Commission, November 1917. The Bisbee strike was followed by the deportation of 1,186 miners to a desert town in New Mexico where they were left for 2 days without adequate food, water, or shelter. The deportation was reported by the Commission to be "wholly illegal and without authority in law, either State or Federal."

[3] American Mining Congress, Proceedings, 1917.

The Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers, representing miners and millmen who had always been organized on an industrial-union basis, was one of the seven unions which formed the Committee for Industrial Organization in November 1935. Early in 1938 it was expelled from the American Federation of Labor.

Provisions of Union Agreements

Current union agreements in the industry are described below, the mining agreements and the smelting and refining agreements being treated separately. The processing of ore, whether conducted at the mine or by independently operated plants, is considered a mining operation along with the actual removal of ore from the ground. Smelting and refining of the mined ore are manufacturing operations, designated with the manufacture of finished products. It is usual, however, for a company to engage both in mining and manufacture.

Classification of mines according to the kind of ore extracted is difficult, since the mines usually contain two or more metals, the relative proportion changing from time to time. Byproducts, too, may be economically as important as the principal metal mined. Designations used below are therefore only generally descriptive.

METAL-MINING AGREEMENTS

The contracts signed by the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers in localities where the predominant function is the mining operation cover copper, gold, silver, lead, and zinc. The term "miner" is usually defined to include all underground workmen, surface laborers, station tenders and shaft men, engineers, teamsters, and men working at precipitating plants.

Closed shop and check-off.—Most of these contracts provide for a closed union shop. To aid in enforcement, the company is usually required to furnish the union a complete list of all employees within 1 week after the end of each month. Any employee designated by the union as not in good standing is to be notified by the company of such delinquency. The employees who do not comply with union requirements within 10 days are not permitted to work until standing in the union is regained. In addition to the closed shop, several mines in Montana provide that only local men may be employed as long as men satisfactory to the company are available. Only one agreement establishes the check-off method of collecting union dues.

Wages.—Wage determinations based upon the price of the metal mined are characteristic of these contracts. Minimum wages are set for underground miners, with differentials established for other employees covered by the agreement. In the Anaconda copper mines the minima are based on the price per pound of electrolytic copper as quoted in the standard trade journal. When the price exceeds 9¾ cents

for a period of 30 successive days, an increase of 50 cents a day is added to the basic wage. Increases of 25 cents per day are made for each 1½-cent rise in the average price of copper for any 30-day period. Decreases in the wage are made upon the same conditions, but each newly established rate must continue unchanged for at least 30 successive days.

In the silver mines, wage determination based on prices is less complicated. When the Government price of silver is at least 70 cents and under 89 cents per ounce, $4.50 is paid daily to underground miners. When the price falls below 70 cents, wages are decreased by 25 cents. If it goes over 89 cents, an increase of 25 cents in the wage is made for each increase of 10 cents in the price of silver.

When and if the price of gold increases or declines $1 from the price as of November 1, 1937, the right of negotiations for new wage rates is guaranteed to both parties to the agreement.

Wages paid by the Snyder zinc mines in Idaho are based on the average paid in the zinc mines in the Tooele, Park City, and Tintic districts of Utah. Occasionally the employee has the option of working on contract, with an established rate per number of yards drilled, or on a straight-time basis. When time rates are not connected with prices, the daily rate ranges between $5 and $6.76.

Overtime.—Overtime pay is provided at one and one-half times the regular rate. Work between regular shifts is likewise remunerated, with a usual guaranty that the minimum pay shall not be less than 4 hours at straight-time pay. Double time is generally paid for work performed on holidays.

Hours.—The 8-hour day for underground miners has long been established by law in most mining States. Thirty minutes is allowed for lunch in the mine. At some mines, engineers, pumpmen, and mill men are not limited to six shifts a week but may work 7 days a week, with the privilege of arranging for a vacation each year. Some contracts limit night-shift work to a period of 2 weeks at a time.

Working conditions.—Most of these agreements provide that shower baths and adequate change-room facilities must be furnished. First-aid equipment is also usually required. In some mines, 50 cents extra is paid per shift where men must work in wet locations requiring boots and slickers. In some agreements miners are forbidden to work alone underground at any actual mining operation. One agreement requires the use of machines wherever they may be used underground.

Seniority.—Seniority usually guides the discharge and reemployment policies of the miners. The contracts provide that the men having the greatest length of service shall have preference in retaining employment and in regaining employment after any shutdown. In one locality consideration is given to family status and ability before length of service is considered.

Settlement of grievances.—Machinery for the settlement of grievances is set forth in general terms in all the contracts. Usually any grievance or misunderstanding which cannot be settled on the job between the employee and foreman may be referred to the mine manager. If no settlement is made, the dispute may be taken up with a high representative of the company.

In case of disagreement as to fact the union committee may, with a representative of the company, make any necessary examination at the working place involved, provided this does not impede or interfere with operations. Men found to be discharged without cause are guaranteed back pay.

In the mines and plants of the Anaconda Copper Co., a local industrial-relations committee with five representatives of each party is established. If at least seven representatives cannot agree within 15 days, the dispute is referred to the executive industrial-relations committee, composed of one representative for each party from the Butte mines, the Anaconda smelter, and the Great Falls refinery. A vote of four from this body makes a decision final and binding.

Lockouts and strikes are prohibited unless all means of settling the controversy have been exhausted. Usually it is agreed that should any conditions lead to a stoppage of production, employees engaged on work in connection with the operation of pumps or machinery to protect the property from danger or destruction shall continue work. These employees are not required to work during the strike if the company attempts to produce. Also it is generally provided that if negotiations are not completed within 15 days, the union reserves the right to recall these maintenance men.

SMELTING AND REFINING AGREEMENTS

The provisions of the contracts signed by the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers in plants where smelting and and refining are the principal operations are necessarily different from mining agreements. The Anaconda Copper Co. smelting and refining units, however, contain the same provisions for a closed shop, for wage determinations and grievance machinery as apply to the copper miners. The largest company in this field, the American Smelting & Refining Co., has refused to sign a company-wide agreement, each plant bargaining separately.

Union status.—In the agreements covered, the union is the exclusive bargaining agent for the employees, with the guaranty that there will be no discrimination against any employee for membership in the union. At one plant all new employees must join the union within 2 weeks of hiring. In several places the company agrees to direct all newly hired men to the union committee.

It is a common practice for the company to deduct union dues and death assessments from the pay checks of union members upon receipt of written authorization from the employee.

Wages.—Wage increases provided for in many of the contracts range from 4 cents to 10 cents an hour in all classifications. In several the minimum-wage classification was raised from 45 cents to 58 cents and the maximum-wage classification from 79 cents to 89 cents. No less than 3 or 4 hours' pay must be given if a man is called to work. Overtime work is compensated at one and one-half times the hourly rate, with double time for work on a holiday.

Hours.—The 8-hour day and 40-hour week prevail. In some cases the 40-hour week may be averaged over a 1-month or 3-month period. A few plants have a 48-hour maximum workweek.

Vacations.—Vacations with pay are provided in some of the agreements. The usual amount is 5 days annually, after 3 years of continuous employment with the company. In several others 2 to 5 days are provided after 1 year of service.

Working conditions.—In agreements covering lead-refining plants, there is provision for an examination for lead poisoning 4 times a year. Anyone found susceptible must be transferred away from such exposure to another position carrying substantially the same wage rate. Clothing allowance in the form of money or actual provision of clothes is often made where men are working with acids.

Seniority.—Both department and plant seniority are recognized in most of these agreements. Department seniority is frequently the guide in advancement and in temporary reduction of forces. Plant seniority is used to give preference in transfers to another department or in the event of permanent curtailment of employees. Preference accruing from length of service is usually given in rehiring men after a shutdown or curtailment, with consideration for ability and adaptability to a new line of work. In several agreements it is expressly stated that men granted leave of absence for union business in the district or international office shall retain their seniority standing.

Settlement of grievances.—For settlement of all disputes or questions in regard to the general working conditions, grievance committees made up of representatives of the union in different departments are recognized in the agreements. Regular scheduled meetings of the management and grievance committee, on company time, are arranged at one plant. If the employee is unable to settle a grievance with his foreman the grievance committee is empowered to adjust the dispute with the department head and the plant superintendent if necessary.

Arbitration is frequently provided if grievance machinery fails. The arbitrator may not be called in until a committee of three representatives of each side is unable to obtain a majority vote, or the

arbitrator may be the third man on a board made up of a union representative and a company representative.

Discharges may be submitted to the same grievance-adjustment procedure if necessary. Full pay for lost time is usually guaranteed if the discharge was without cause.

Strikes and lock-outs are prohibited during the life of the agreements. In one agreement, a fine of $3 each and $1 for each additional day is to be levied on an employee or employees guilty of unauthorized interference with plant operations or output. Several provide that in the event all other means of adjustment are exhausted, a strike vote may be taken by secret written ballot and must represent a majority. The authority for calling a strike is frequently vested in the international union under the terms of the contract. In case of strike, the union usually agrees to furnish such men as may be necessary to maintain and protect the employer's plant, as long as he does not attempt to resume production.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

ACCORDING to preliminary estimates, strike activity remained about the same during the 2 months of June and July 1938. In each month about 190 new strikes occurred, involving about 45,000 workers. During the preceding 3 months there was an average of about 220 new strikes each month, involving an average of 72,000 workers.

Compared to a year ago, the diminution in strike activity is marked. In June 1937 there were 610 new strikes, in July 472. In June a year ago there were approximately 5,000,000, and in July 3,000,000 man-days idle during strikes in these months; in June and July 1938 there were about 850,000 each month.

The figures given in the accompanying table for June and July are based on newspaper reports and other information available as this issue goes to press. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

Trend of Strikes, 1933 to July 1938 [1]

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934		1,856				1,466,695		19,591,949
1935		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
January	100	171	271	132	139	108,621	214,268	2,720,281
February	139	211	350	204	146	99,335	226,329	1,491,268
March	146	614	760	510	250	290,324	358,155	3,288,979
April	250	535	785	512	273	221,572	394,178	3,377,223
May	273	604	877	547	330	325,499	445,170	2,982,735
June	330	610	940	582	358	281,478	474,954	4,998,408
July	358	472	830	533	297	143,678	353,682	3,007,819
August	297	449	746	451	295	143,033	238,828	2,270,380
September	295	361	656	393	263	88,967	160,241	1,449,948
October	263	320	583	378	205	67,242	127,109	1,181,914
November	205	262	467	265	202	68,929	118,632	981,697
December	202	131	333	213	120	21,943	60,518	674,205
1938:								
January	120	148	268	154	114	32,357	52,878	465,034
February	114	158	272	164	108	51,208	75,095	494,283
March	108	220	328	187	141	54,026	101,894	773,743
April	141	209	350	222	128	76,008	107,215	781,608
May	128	233	361	223	138	86,792	124,615	1,160,817
June [1]	138	190	328	198	130	45,500	88,000	850,000
July [1]	130	195	325	190	135	45,000	75,000	850,000

[1] Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. . . Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final.-- This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN MAY 1938 [1]

THERE was a moderate seasonal rise in the number of strikes beginning in May. However, strike activity continued to be much less than a year ago. In May 1937 there were 604 strikes, compared to 233 in May 1938. There were less than 27 percent as many workers involved in strikes in May of this year as last year, and not quite 40 percent as many man-days idle.

The greatest number of strikes (36) beginning in May occurred in retail and wholesale trade, 25 in the former and 11 in the latter. The largest of these was a short strike of wholesale liquor salesmen in New Jersey and a strike of garage mechanics in Milwaukee.

There were 35 strikes in the building trades and 23 in the food industry. Eleven of the latter were in bakeries, although more workers (over 10,000) were involved in the 4 cannery strikes. Most of these workers were in fruit and vegetable canneries in the State of Washington, who went on strike in protest against a 5-cent wage decrease.

The 3 strikes in the tire industry involved more workers (18,164) than strikes in any other industry. One of these, at the Goodrich Rubber Co., resulted in the first union contract signed by that company and the United Rubber Workers of America.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in May 1938, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries	**233**	**86,792**	**361**	**124,615**	**1,160,817**
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	**5**	**3,246**	**10**	**3,926**	**26,473**
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills			1	311	5,287
Hardware	1	39	1	39	78
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	1	1,683	1	1,683	8,898
Stoves	1	245	3	570	4,820
Structural and ornamental metal work	1	53	1	53	636
Tin cans and other tinware			1	14	294
Other	1	1,226	2	1,256	6,460
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	**4**	**3,883**	**9**	**5,701**	**89,528**
Agricultural implements			1	1,500	30,300
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	2	1,621	3	1,640	16,559
Foundry and machine-shop products	1	30	4	329	4,725
Radios and phonographs	1	2,232	1	2,232	37,944
Transportation equipment	**3**	**3,232**	**8**	**6 163**	**40,253**
Automobiles, bodies and parts	3	3,232	7	5,363	33,053
Shipbuilding			1	800	7,200
Nonferrous metals and their products	**1**	**981**	**5**	**2,142**	**15,311**
Brass, bronze, and copper products			1	759	7,447
Jewelry	1	981	1	981	3,924
Lighting equipment			1	210	1,260
Silverware and plated ware			1	86	1,806
Stamped and enameled ware			1	106	874
Lumber and allied products	**14**	**2,399**	**26**	**4,269**	**53,491**
Furniture	6	465	10	695	4,199
Millwork and planing	2	984	3	1,321	24,430
Sawmills and logging camps	3	669	5	904	7,888
Other	3	281	8	1,349	16,974

[1] Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in May 1938, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Stone, clay, and glass products	**7**	**3,733**	**16**	**4,288**	**63,410**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	3	280	4	430	8,021
Cement			1	22	22
Glass			2	65	1,569
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	3	3,447	7	3,715	53,624
Other	1	6	2	56	174
Textiles and their products	**18**	**9,020**	**29**	**11,469**	**123,139**
Fabrics:					
Carpets and rugs	1	4,975	1	4,975	39,800
Cotton goods	3	1,235	4	1,735	17,561
Dyeing and finishing textiles	1	800	2	920	10,200
Silk and rayon goods	1	174	1	174	522
Woolen and worsted goods	2	440	2	440	3,966
Other	1	158	1	158	2,844
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's			2	93	913
Clothing, women's	3	127	6	270	3,399
Hats, caps, and millinery	3	192	4	277	2,504
Shirts and collars	1	100	1	100	100
Hosiery	1	120	3	1,028	18,173
Knit goods	1	699	1	699	10,557
Other			1	600	12,600
Leather and its manufactures	**4**	**228**	**7**	**500**	**4,297**
Boots and shoes	2	195	2	195	1,347
Leather			1	205	2,625
Other leather goods	2	33	4	100	325
Food and kindred products	**23**	**14,282**	**32**	**22,288**	**199,854**
Baking	11	2,821	13	2,886	11,907
Beverages	1	500	1	500	1,500
Canning and preserving	4	10,226	7	17,676	174,357
Confectionery	2	229	3	579	3,476
Flour and grain mills			1	63	1,575
Slaughtering and meat packing	4	391	4	391	2,304
Other	1	115	3	193	4,735
Tobacco manufactures			**1**	**640**	**10,880**
Cigars			1	640	10,880
Paper and printing	**10**	**511**	**18**	**2,121**	**38,658**
Boxes, paper	2	46	4	859	20,435
Paper and pulp	2	246	2	246	2,622
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job	1	11	2	18	75
Newspapers and periodicals	3	184	4	484	5,280
Other	2	24	6	514	10,246
Chemicals and allied products	**7**	**1,280**	**9**	**1,403**	**11,055**
Chemicals	1	17	1	17	204
Druggists' preparations	1	56	1	56	1,008
Paint and varnishes	1	22	2	57	867
Petroleum refining	2	301	2	301	2,892
Other	2	884	3	972	6,084
Rubber products	**6**	**18,663**	**7**	**18,865**	**66,483**
Rubber tires and inner tubes	3	18,164	3	18,164	62,576
Other rubber goods	3	499	4	701	3,907
Miscellaneous manufacturing	**5**	**380**	**13**	**6,585**	**120,421**
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas			1	12	120
Broom and brush			1	15	300
Furriers and fur factories	1	6	2	5,506	104,596
Other	4	374	9	1,052	15,405
Extraction of minerals	**3**	**3,896**	**7**	**4,690**	**52,108**
Coal mining, anthracite	2	3,410	3	3,566	40,470
Coal mining, bituminous	1	486	3	981	11,283
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining			1	143	355
Transportation and communication	**17**	**1,747**	**24**	**3,168**	**23,763**
Water transportation	7	1,403	8	2,003	17,426
Motor transportation	9	232	12	942	4,438
Motorbus transportation	1	112	2	128	736
Taxicabs and miscellaneous			2	95	1,163

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in May 1938, by Industry*—Continued

Industry	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Trade	36	5,549	48	8,443	57,735
Wholesale	11	2,465	17	2,817	11,054
Retail	25	3,084	31	5,626	46,681
Domestic and personal service	13	1,205	22	2,069	23,627
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	4	254	10	554	8,000
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors	2	640	2	640	1,120
Laundries	5	181	8	745	14,165
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	1	24	1	24	24
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry)	1	106	1	106	318
Professional service	7	514	7	514	3,034
Recreation and amusement	6	340	6	340	1,990
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers	1	174	1	174	1,044
Building and construction	35	3,625	41	4,019	34,148
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.	19	2,304	23	2,631	22,013
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings)	16	1,321	18	1,388	12,135
Agriculture and fishing	3	3,075	5	5,325	73,300
Agriculture	2	2,275	2	2,275	12,300
Fishing	1	800	2	3,000	60,600
Other			1	50	400
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	5	4,789	7	4,917	16,020
Other nonmanufacturing industries	7	554	10	1,110	13,529

Almost twice as many strikes began in New York as in Pennsylvania, the State with the second highest number. However, there were more workers involved in the Pennsylvania and Washington strikes, and three times as many in the Ohio strikes, as those in New York. There were over 100,000 man-days idle during strikes in four States—New York, Pennsylvania, Washington, and California.

Seven States had no strikes at any time during the month. Six States and the District of Columbia had no new strikes beginning in the month, although all had at least one strike which had started previously and extended into May. Twelve additional States had only one new strike, most of them being small, with fewer than 100 workers.

The seven interstate strikes included a carpet company with plants in Connecticut and New York, a felt company with branches in Massachussetts and Michigan, granite cutters against 175 firms in New York and New Jersey, a textile firm with plants in New York and New Jersey, a sugar company doing business in Michigan and Ohio, truck drivers operating through several New England States, and a strike of fishermen on the Pacific coast.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in May 1938, by States*

State	Beginning in May		In progress during May		Man-days idle during May
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States	233	86,792	361	124,615	1,160,817
Alabama	2	214	8	1,614	27,785
Arizona	1	75	2	101	543
Arkansas			1	20	260
California	13	2,339	22	8,432	117,053
Colorado	1	15	1	15	165
Connecticut	4	167	4	167	2,020
District of Columbia			1	50	400
Georgia	2	157	3	178	2,101
Idaho	2	18	2	18	134
Illinois	11	3,347	19	6,019	63,700
Indiana	5	211	7	835	14,792
Iowa	1	1,600	1	1,600	16,000
Kentucky	1	28	1	28	28
Louisiana	5	441	7	1,329	13,336
Maine			1	30	120
Maryland	1	555	2	1,005	7,695
Massachusetts	5	420	12	1,589	20,976
Michigan	8	1,743	15	5,035	41,811
Minnesota	4	1,463	8	2,330	38,269
Missouri	5	411	8	611	5,979
Montana			1	30	750
Nebraska	2	456	3	496	1,962
Nevada	1	38	1	38	646
New Hampshire			1	143	355
New Jersey	12	4,690	15	5,430	18,639
New Mexico	1	70	1	70	840
New York	52	7,366	78	14,304	173,062
North Carolina	2	491	4	748	4,408
North Dakota	1	19	1	19	133
Ohio	16	21,691	21	22,153	82,645
Oklahoma	1	80	2	110	300
Oregon			1	35	350
Pennsylvania	28	9,600	42	14,109	155,727
Rhode Island	4	1,052	5	1,092	8,786
South Carolina	1	533	2	708	7,640
Tennessee	4	463	8	805	6,957
Texas	2	45	2	45	155
Vermont	1	2,500	1	2,500	30,000
Virginia			1	16	400
Washington	7	10,571	11	15,530	146,965
West Virginia	1	109	1	109	2,725
Wisconsin	19	5,392	25	6,482	46,384
Interstate	7	8,422	9	8,637	97,821

Almost 60 percent of the strikes beginning in May involved fewer than 100 workers. Strikes in nonmanufacturing tended to be smaller; almost 70 percent of these involved fewer than 100 workers. Three strikes involved more than 5,000—cannery workers in Seattle and strikes at the Goodrich and Goodyear companies in Akron.

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TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in May 1938, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries	233	46	89	66	14	15	2	1
Manufacturing								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	5		2	1		2		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	4		2			2		
Transportation equipment	3			1		2		
Nonferrous metals and their products	1				1			
Lumber and allied products	14	1	5	7	1			
Stone, clay, and glass products	7	1	2	2	1	1		
Textiles and their products	18	1	5	8	3	1		
Leather and its manufactures	4	2	1	1				
Food and kindred products	23	3	7	9	1	2		1
Paper and printing	10	5	3	2				
Chemicals and allied products	7	1	4	1	1			
Rubber products	6		2	2			2	
Miscellaneous manufactures	5	2	1	2				
Nonmanufacturing								
Extraction of minerals	3			1	1	1		
Transportation and communication	17	5	9	2	1			
Trade	36	11	16	7		2		
Domestic and personal service	13		10	2	1			
Professional service	7	1	3	3				
Building and construction	35	10	13	11	1			
Agriculture and fishing	3				2	1		
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	5	1	1	2		1		
Other nonmanufacturing industries	7	2	3	2				

One-third of all the workers involved in strikes beginning in May were in those disputes called in protest against wage decreases and hour increases. Twelve percent were in strikes for increases in wages and decreases in hours.

The disputes over union-organization matters (union recognition, closed shop, discrimination, etc.) tended to be much smaller on the average than those for other causes. About 44 percent of the total strikes were due to union-organization issues, but these involved only 18 percent of all the workers.

Other matters than wages, hours, and union-organization were the major issues in 22 percent of the strikes, involving 37 percent of all workers involved in strikes beginning in May. Several of these were in protest against speed-up, work loads, and excessive fines, one against the employment of "outsiders" rather than local men, several for vacations with pay and guaranteed weekly wages, and several were in protest against the discharge of persons whom the employers said were inefficient. The largest of these strikes, classified under "miscellaneous," was the 4-day strike at the Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co., in which the chief specific issue was that of certain lay-offs and transfers. Underlying this, however, was the dissatisfaction with the

company's continued refusal to sign a written agreement, and suspicion that the company was "trying to destroy" the union.

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in May 1938*

Major issues	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues	233	100.0	86,792	100.0
Wages and hours	80	34.3	39,068	45.0
Wage increase	35	15.0	8,297	9.6
Wage decrease	34	14.6	26,378	30.3
Wage increase, hour decrease	9	3.9	2,131	2.5
Wage decrease, hour increase	1	.4	2,232	2.6
Hour decrease	1	.4	30	(1)
Union organization	102	43.8	15,810	18.2
Recognition	5	2.1	485	.6
Recognition and wages	20	8.6	3,816	4.4
Recognition and hours	1	.4	38	(1)
Recognition, wages, and hours	32	13.8	2,562	3.0
Closed shop	28	12.0	3,368	3.9
Discrimination	10	4.3	1,564	1.8
Other	6	2.6	3,977	4.5
Miscellaneous	51	21.9	31,914	36.8
Sympathy	2	.9	330	.4
Rival unions or factions	12	5.2	954	1.1
Jurisdiction	4	1.7	219	.3
Other	33	14.1	30,411	35.0

[1] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Of the 361 strikes in progress some time during May, 223 were terminated before the close of the month. Almost 35 percent of these lasted less than 1 week; 60 percent less than one-half month.

Four strikes had been in progress more than 3 months. Two of these were small, involving 14 and 20 workers. A third was that of several hundred lumber workers in Alabama, in protest against a reduction in wages from 25 cents to 18 cents an hour; a compromise of 21 cents was finally reached.

The largest of these prolonged disputes was the 15-week lock-out and strike of fur workers in New York City. The strike resulted in the signing of a 3-year contract specifying, among other things, a wage increase and 8 months' guaranty of work each season, with equal division of work.

TABLE 5.—*Duration of Strikes Ending in May 1938*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries	223	77	60	41	37	4	4
Manufacturing							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	4		2	2			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	3	1	1		1		
Transportation equipment	6	2		4			
Nonferrous metals and their products	3	1		1	1		
Lumber and allied products	19	5	3	5	5		1
Stone, clay, and glass products	5	1	1		3		
Textiles and their products	14	3	2	6	3		
Leather and its manufactures	4	1	2	1			
Food and kindred products	21	13	3	1	4		
Paper and printing	11	1	2	4	2	2	
Chemicals and allied products	4		2	1	1		
Rubber products	5	2	1	1	1		
Miscellaneous manufactures	6		1	1	2	1	1
Nonmanufacturing							
Extraction of minerals	3		1	1	1		
Transportation and communication	19	8	8	1	1		1
Trade	34	11	11	6	5		1
Domestic and personal service	13	6	2	2	3		
Professional service	5	5					
Building and construction	29	11	13	2	3		
Agriculture and fishing	4	1	1	1	1		
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	6	2	3			1	
Other nonmanufacturing industries	5	3	1	1			

In disputes involving almost 60 percent of all workers involved in the strikes ending in May, Government conciliators and labor boards assisted in the settlement. In most of these, union representatives negotiated for the workers. About 30 percent of the workers were involved in the 45 percent of all strikes in which settlement was brought about directly between union representatives and the employers.

Almost 12 percent of the strikes, involving only 2 percent of the workers, were terminated without formal settlement. Most of these strikes were lost when employers hired new workers to fill the strikers' places, moved or went out of business, or when the strikers gradually returned to work on the employers' terms.

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in May 1938*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	223	100.0	77,404	100.0
Employers and workers directly	2	.9	92	.1
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly	100	44.8	23,502	30.4
Government conciliators or labor boards	91	40.8	45,361	58.6
Private conciliators or arbitrators	4	1.8	6,916	8.9
Terminated without formal settlement	26	11.7	1,533	2.0

About 42 percent of the strikes, involving 39 percent of the workers, resulted in substantial gains to workers, while 35 percent of the strikes, involving 44 percent of the workers, resulted in partial gains or compromises. Less than 16 percent of the strikes, involving fewer than 5 percent of the workers, were terminated with little or no gains.

Practically the same proportion (about 44 percent) of the strikes for wage increases and shortening of hours were successful as those in protest against wage decreases and lengthening of hours. Likewise, about the same proportion (45 percent) of the union-organization and the wage-and-hour strikes were successful, and slightly less of both types (38 percent) were compromised.

However, more of the workers involved in wage-and-hour strikes (54 percent) were successful than those involved in strikes over union-organization matters (40 percent). About 40 percent of the workers involved in wage-and-hour strikes and 50 percent of the workers in union-organization strikes returned to work with compromise settlements.

Almost 7 percent of the strikes ending in May, involving slightly over 12 percent of the workers, were disputes involving matters of jurisdiction, rival unions, and factions within unions.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in May 1938*

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total	223	100.0	77,404	100.0
Substantial gains to workers	94	42.2	29,892	38.6
Partial gains or compromises	78	35.0	34,237	44.3
Little or no gains to workers	35	15.7	3,431	4.4
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	15	6.7	9,614	12.4
Indeterminate	1	.4	230	.3

TABLE 8.—*Results of Strikes Ending in May 1938, in Relation to Major Issues Involved*

Major issues	Total	Strikes resulting in—				
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate
	Number of strikes					
All issues	223	94	78	35	15	1
Wages and hours	82	37	31	14	----	----
Wage increase	37	16	15	6	----	----
Wage decrease	33	14	13	6	----	----
Wage increase, hour decrease	10	5	3	2	----	----
Wage decrease, hour increase	1	1	----	----	----	----
Hour decrease	1	1	----	----	----	----
Union organization	93	42	35	16	----	----
Recognition	4	2	1	1	----	----
Recognition and wages	22	5	14	3	----	----
Recognition and hours	1	1	----	----	----	----
Recognition, wages, and hours	32	20	7	5	----	----
Closed shop	18	8	9	1	----	----
Discrimination	9	3	3	3	----	----
Other	7	3	1	3	----	----
Miscellaneous	48	15	12	5	15	1
Sympathy	2	1	----	----	----	1
Rival unions or factions	12	----	----	----	12	----
Jurisdiction	3	----	----	----	3	----
Other	31	14	12	5	----	----
	Number of workers involved					
All issues	77,404	29,892	34,237	3,431	9,614	230
Wages and hours	23,254	12,549	9,616	1,089	----	----
Wage increase	7,947	2,022	5,659	266	----	----
Wage decrease	8,131	4,037	3,398	696	----	----
Wage increase, hour decrease	7,135	6,449	559	127	----	----
Wage decrease, hour increase	11	11	----	----	----	----
Hour decrease	30	30	----	----	----	----
Union organization	14,644	5,864	7,170	1,610	----	----
Recognition	129	92	26	11	----	----
Recognition and wages	4,593	2,072	2,465	56	----	----
Recognition and hours	38	38	----	----	----	----
Recognition, wages, and hours	2,474	1,650	698	126	----	----
Closed shop	1,767	607	1,139	21	----	----
Discrimination	1,470	287	42	1,141	----	----
Other	4,173	1,118	2,800	255	----	----
Miscellaneous	39,506	11,479	17,451	732	9,614	230
Sympathy	330	100	----	----	----	230
Rival unions or factions	9,470	----	----	----	9,470	----
Jurisdiction	144	----	----	----	144	----
Other	29,562	11,379	17,451	732	----	----

ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, JULY 1938

THE United States Conciliation Service, in July, disposed of 277 situations involving 114,311 workers. Employees, employers, and other interested parties desiring the services of this agency brought these matters to its attention.

Labor disputes, such as strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies accounted for 110 situations involving 85,964 workers. The remaining 167 situations involving 28,347 workers were services rendered such as arbitrations, adjustments of miscellaneous complaints, conferences regarding labor conditions, etc.

Table 1 shows activities of the Service were utilized by employees and employers in 38 States, the District of Columbia, and Alaska.

The facilities of the Service during July were utilized in 26 major industrial fields, such as foods, lumber, textiles, iron and steel, etc. (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, July 1938, by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	110	85,964	167	28,347	277	114,311
Alabama	3	424	7	1,567	10	1,991
Alaska	1	2,000			1	2,000
Arizona	1	100			1	100
Arkansas			1	1	1	1
California	11	15,116	11	297	22	15,413
Connecticut	2	1,475	1	125	3	1,600
Delaware			1	1	1	1
District of Columbia	4	1,129	25	52	29	1,181
Florida			2	8,001	2	8,001
Georgia	1	145	1	1	2	146
Idaho	2	63			2	63
Illinois	6	1,371	2	2	8	1,373
Indiana	3	176	3	3	6	179
Iowa	2	126	2	2,501	4	2,627
Kentucky	2	23	2	699	4	722
Louisiana	1	7	2	2	3	9
Maine	1	125			1	125
Maryland	1	400	4	4	5	404
Massachusetts	4	1,808	5	1,326	9	3,134
Michigan	6	2,482			6	2,482
Minnesota	5	11,549	2	2	7	11,551
Mississippi			5	1,251	5	1,251
Missouri	6	537			6	537
New Jersey	3	2,026	7	10	10	2,036
New York	9	11,862	30	1,074	39	12,936
North Carolina	1	5,500	9	4,452	10	9,952
Ohio	6	3,997	7	310	13	4,307
Oklahoma	1	553			1	553
Oregon	2	5,260	2	101	4	5,361
Pennsylvania	7	1,300	8	252	15	1,552
Rhode Island	4	1,627			4	1,627
South Carolina	2	3,400	10	5,052	12	8,452
Tennessee	2	1,008	2	2	4	1,010
Texas	1	350	3	3	4	353
Utah	1	1,144			1	1,144
Virginia	4	8,308	3	3	7	8,311
Washington	1	167	7	1,224	8	1,391
West Virginia	1	200	1	1	2	201
Wisconsin	1	5	1	1	2	6
Wyoming	2	201	1	27	3	228

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, July 1938, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	110	85,964	167	28,347	277	114,311
Agriculture	1	3,500	1	1	2	3,501
Automobile	8	595	3	33	11	628
Building trades	8	1,682	12	213	20	1,895
Chemicals	1	495	1	1	2	496
Communications			1	1	1	1
Domestic and personal services	4	879	3	102	7	981
Food	15	10,579	8	535	23	11,114
Iron and steel	10	9,042	4	14	14	9,056
Leather	4	5,325	1	1	5	5,326
Lumber:						
Furniture	3	655	1	100	4	755
Other	3	11,565	4	2,301	7	13,866
Machinery	4	207	5	504	9	711
Maritime	3	549	11	22	14	571
Mining	1	258	3	3	4	261
Motion picture	1	1,800	1	5	2	1,805
Nonferrous metals	3	1,385			3	1,385
Paper and printing	4	6,412	4	13	8	6,425
Petroleum			1	1	1	1
Professional services			3	102	3	102
Rubber	1	1,000			1	1,000
Stone, clay, and glass	4	399			4	399
Textiles:						
Cotton	3	8,900	26	12,227	29	21,127
Other	17	12,865	27	2,412	44	15,277
Tobacco	1	2,375	2	8,698	3	11,073
Trade			3	4	3	4
Transportation	8	4,621	17	30	25	4,651
Transportation equipment	1	58			1	58
Utilities			2	2	2	2
Unclassified	2	818	23	1,022	25	1,840

Wages and Hours of Labor

EARNINGS AND HOURS IN MANUFACTURE OF RADIO TRANSMITTERS AND RELATED PRODUCTS, 1938[1]

Summary

AVERAGE hourly earnings of workers in establishments manufacturing radio transmitters and related products were 68.1 cents in May 1938. Skilled male employees, who constituted 55.5 percent of the labor force, earned 79.6 cents an hour, as compared with 56.8 cents for semiskilled and 50.8 cents for unskilled males. Female wage earners, all of whom were classed as semiskilled, received 47.3 cents.

That the 40-hour week generally prevails in the industry is shown by the fact that nearly one-half of the wage earners worked exactly 40 hours in the pay-roll period surveyed. The average for all employees was 38.5 hours per week.

These facts are revealed in a survey recently completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering 21 establishments and 2,137 wage earners engaged in the manufacture of radio transmitters, commercial radio receivers, and public address equipment, including also microphones, transmitter tubes, radio compasses, radio beacons, direction finders, remote-control equipment, and other similar apparatus.

The 5 largest establishments covered, with a total of 1,628 wage earners, are separate units or departments belonging to several large companies that manufacture radio receiving sets, airplane parts, and electrical apparatus. The remaining 16 establishments each employed from 10 to 150 wage earners.

Coverage of Survey

In a previous report, the Bureau of Labor Statistics presented an analysis of average hourly earnings in the manufacture of radio receiving sets, parts (except cabinets), and tubes.[2] The present

[1] Prepared by H. E. Riley and G. E. Votava, of the Division of Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, August 1938, pp. 363 to 377: Hourly Earnings in Radio Manufactures, August 1937.

survey supplements that report by presenting data on the manufacture of radio transmitters, commercial receiving apparatus,[3] and public-address equipment, including also microphones, transmission tubes, radio compasses, radio beacons, direction finders, remote-control equipment, and other similar apparatus.

This report, however, does not cover the manufacture of radio transmitter parts other than microphones, unless made in the same plant with transmitter sets. There are several establishments engaged solely in making transformers, capacitors, dials, meters, or other parts, which are sold to manufacturers of transmitter sets. Most of these products are likewise adapted for use in radio-receiving sets. Hence, the important producers of parts used in radio-transmitter manufacture have already been included in the previous survey by the Bureau. It should also be noted that this report does not cover the manufacture of phonograph records or record-playing equipment for broadcasting purposes.

Information was obtained from company pay-roll records by field representatives of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The data included the sex, occupation, and method of wage payment for each employee (except office and higher supervisory), together with a record of hours actually worked and earnings received in a recent pay-roll period. In most cases, the pay-roll period taken fell in the latter half of May 1938.

Descriptions of occupations were written in consultation with plant officials and after observation of the actual operations. On the basis of this information, the occupational groups used in this report were set up and the degree of skill of each occupation determined.

The schedule for each establishment also covered information on type of product, normal working hours, bonus systems, employer-employee relations, and other matters affecting employees.

Exact information is not available as to the number of firms engaged primarily in the manufacture of the various types of apparatus included in this survey. From trade directories, a list was compiled of 53 establishments in the country whose products appeared to fall under the definition here adopted. However, as the survey was limited to plants with 10 or more wage earners and as some plants were engaged primarily in making other products, only 21 establishments with 2,137 employees were covered in the survey, but it is believed that they included virtually the entire industry as here defined. Of the plants studied, 3 were located in California, 1 in Iowa, 5 in Illinois, 1 in Maryland, 5 in New Jersey, 4 in New York, and 2 in Massachusetts.

[3] Commercial receiving apparatus includes primarily the equipment used for aviation and police short-wave systems. This equipment differs considerably from the home-type radio receivers, in that it must be lighter but at the same time more accurate and rugged.

Characteristics of Industry

Five plants, with 1,628 wage earners, were separate units or departments belonging to large companies manufacturing radio receiving sets, airplane parts, and electrical apparatus. The remaining 16 establishments, with 509 employees, were all small independent firms; 4 employed between 10 and 20 wage earners, 8 between 21 and 50, 3 between 51 and 100, and only 1 over 100 workers.

Skilled workers, constituting 55.5 percent of the labor force, predominated in these plants. The semiskilled were next in importance, with 41.1 percent, and the unskilled were only 3.4 percent of the total. Females, all semiskilled, constituted 16.3 percent.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Radio Workers Covered in Survey, by Sex and Skill, May 1938*

	Total		Skilled		Semiskilled		Unskilled	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
All employees	2,137	100.0	1,187	55.5	878	41.1	72	3.4
Male	1,788	83.7	1,187	55.5	529	24.8	72	3.4
Female	349	16.3	----	----	349	16.3	----	----

The predominance of skilled males is due to the fact that the industry is not conducted on a mass-production basis. The products of the plants covered here, such as broadcasting-station transmitters, portable receiving and transmitting sets of the aircraft type, etc., are sold to relatively few customers, mainly the Government, airplane and shipbuilders, and broadcasting stations. Virtually all of these products are made on a custom-order basis, and many of them are experimental in character. For these reasons, it is not feasible for the establishments to develop an extensive assembly line, as it can be used only in the production of a large number of similar units.

An examination of the data on the value of principal products, which are presented in table 2, indicates the rapid expansion of this industry within the past few years. In part, this increase is due to Government purchases. During 1937, the Federal Government awarded contracts for over $5,000,000 worth of radio equipment and related apparatus, including beacons, range finders, etc. It appears that several of the smaller firms rely almost exclusively upon Government business.

With but one exception, labor organization in the industry is confined to the large establishments. Although only four plants had agreements or understandings with unions, well over half of the employees scheduled were affected. One of the smaller establishments had a written agreement with the International Brotherhood

of Electrical Workers, an affiliate of the A. F. of L., and one large company had a written contract with the United Radio and Electrical Workers, a C. I. O. affiliate. Another of the large firms had an oral understanding with the United Radio and Electrical Workers, and one had a written contract with an unaffiliated employees' organization.

TABLE 2.—*Value of Principal Products Covered by Survey, 1933 and 1935*

[Based on data from U. S. Census of Manufactures]

Product	1935	1933
Aircraft sets, including all accessory equipment except batteries	$651,344	
All other receiving sets,[1] including commercial receiving sets and direction finders	1,189,530	$715,401
Transmitting tubes for initial equipment and for replacement	2,954,290	1,382,002
Rectifier tubes for transmitting	712,472	430,184
Transmitters (including all associated equipment except tubes):		
Broadcast type	401,400	456,938
Aircraft transmitters	1,003,795	59,245
Ship transmitters	1,249,748	516,420
Other transmitters, and those not reported separately	3,115,344	330,881
Microphones (all types)	455,315	343,852
Public-address and music-distribution apparatus	2,783,868	2,298,090

[1] Exclusive of those for home and general use and automobile sets.

Average Hourly Earnings

METHODS OF WAGE PAYMENT

Most of the employees in this industry are paid on a straight-time basis. In three of the largest establishments, however, a substantial number worked under a production-bonus system, and in one small plant a few were paid on a straight piece-work basis.

In 11 establishments, with 1,856 employees, overtime beyond 40 hours per week was compensated at the rate of time and one-half, and 1 small plant paid this rate for time worked in excess of 44 hours. Of the 12 establishments paying punitive rates, 9 also allowed the extra compensation for any time worked beyond 8 hours per day. One plant paid double time for Sunday work. On the other hand, 6 establishments, with 184 workers, paid straight-time for overtime. Among the remaining plants, 2 did not allow any overtime compensation to their employees, all of whom were on a weekly salary basis, and 1 establishment reported no provision for overtime work. Only 4 of the 17 plants having salaried workers allowed extra pay for overtime worked by these employees.

HOURLY EARNINGS OF INDIVIDUAL PLANTS

Average wages for the individual establishments varied from 39.3 to 86.7 cents an hour. Within these limits, the plant averages were widely dispersed. In general, it may be said that the very small

establishments tended to pay lower wages than the larger plants. For example, none of the 8 companies whose averages were below 57.5 cents employed more than 35 wage earners. On the other hand, some of the smallest estalishments were also found among the plants with higher wages. Thus, of the 6 establishments whose averages ranged from 57.5 to 62.5 cents, 2 were independent companies with fewer than 30 employees, 2 were independent plants with 60 to 100 wage earners, and the remaining 2 belonged to the large companies. Furthermore, of the 7 establishments whose earnings exceeded 62.5 cents, there were 2 independent firms with fewer than 25 employees, 2 independent companies employing 60 to 150 wage earners, and 3 plants belonging to the large companies.

The distribution of plant averages by broad geographical divisions indicates that the midwestern companies tend to pay the lowest wages. Thus, of the 6 establishments covered in that area, 4 paid less than 57.5 cents an hour, while the remaining 2 averaged between 57.5 and 62.5 cents. Of the eastern plants, on the other hand, 4 paid under 57.5 cents, 4 between 57.5 and 67.5 cents, and the remaining 4 over 72.5 cents. All 3 of the California establishments, whose total employment was less than 60, averaged over 57.5 cents.

HOURLY EARNINGS OF INDIVIDUAL WORKERS

Hourly earnings of individual wage earners employed in this industry averaged 68.1 cents in May 1938. The distribution in table 3, however, shows that this figure has little validity as an indicator of the wages received by a great majority of the employees. The distribution extended over a wide range, with a significant number of workers earning under 37.5 cents (3.0 percent) and over $1.075 (3.8 percent). Within these limits, no outstanding concentration may be observed. The largest class (47.5 and under 52.5 cents) contained but 11.6 percent of the workers, while 5 percent or more were in every 5-cent interval from 37.5 to 97.5 cents.

This wide diversity in hourly earnings is no doubt the result of a number of factors. As indicated previously, size of establishment and geographical location account in part for this variation. On the other hand, most of it is due to existing differentials in sex, skill, and occupation.

HOURLY EARNINGS BY SKILL AND SEX

Skilled male employees averaged 79.6 cents an hour. The distribution of this group revealed a wide range in hourly earnings, with the significant limits at 42.5 cents and $1.175. The principal concentration (13.6 percent) occurred at 82.5 and under 87.5 cents an hour. Minor concentrations were also found at 47.5 to 52.5 and 67.5 to 72.5 cents. Over half (56.5 percent) of the skilled males were paid between

67.5 and 97.5 cents. Approximately one-fourth (27.3 percent) received under 67.5 cents, while one-sixth (16.2 percent) averaged 97.5 cents or more.

The average for semiskilled males was 56.8 cents an hour. Nearly nine-tenths of the workers were found within the 45-cent range between 37.5 and 82.5 cents. An examination of the original schedules reveals the fact that all of the semiskilled males averaging above 87.5 cents were employed in one establishment which paid them very substantial production bonuses. The largest single group, including 13.8 percent of the employees, was that earning from 42.5 to 47.5 cents, although nearly as many workers earned 37.5 to 42.5 (13.2 percent) and 57.5 to 62.5 cents (13.0 percent). Exactly three-fifths of the semiskilled males averaged between 37.5 and 62.5 cents.

The 72 unskilled males averaged 50.8 cents an hour. However, in view of the small number, their distribution by individual earnings has little significance.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of All Workers in Radio Transmitter and Related Products Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings, Sex, and Skill, May 1938*

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Total		Males								Females	
			Total		Skilled		Semiskilled		Unskilled		Semiskilled	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,137	100.0	1,788	100.0	1,187	100.0	529	100.0	72	100.0	349	100.0
Under 32.5	10	0.5	8	0.4	------	------	6	1.1	2	2.8	2	0.6
32.5 and under 37.5	54	2.5	30	1.7	3	0.3	24	4.5	3	4.2	24	6.9
37.5 and under 42.5	186	8.7	99	5.5	15	1.3	70	13.2	14	19.4	87	24.9
42.5 and under 47.5	144	6.7	113	6.3	25	2.1	73	13.8	15	20.8	31	8.9
47.5 and under 52.5	251	11.6	139	7.8	69	5.8	61	11.5	9	12.5	112	32.1
52.5 and under 57.5	180	8.4	102	5.7	55	4.6	45	8.5	2	2.8	78	22.3
57.5 and under 62.5	170	8.0	157	8.8	74	6.2	69	13.0	14	19.4	13	3.7
62.5 and under 67.5	124	5.8	124	6.9	83	7.0	36	6.8	5	6.9	------	------
67.5 and under 72.5	139	6.5	139	7.8	100	8.4	37	7.0	2	2.8	------	------
72.5 and under 77.5	138	6.5	137	7.7	96	8.1	38	7.2	3	4.2	1	.3
77.5 and under 82.5	123	5.8	123	6.9	80	6.7	41	7.8	2	2.8	------	------
82.5 and under 87.5	179	8.4	179	10.0	162	13.6	17	3.2	------	------	------	------
87.5 and under 92.5	128	6.0	127	7.1	122	10.3	4	0.8	1	1.4	1	.3
92.5 and under 97.5	112	5.2	112	6.3	112	9.4	------	------	------	------	------	------
97.5 and under 102.5	73	3.4	73	4.1	72	6.1	1	.2	------	------	------	------
102.5 and under 107.5	47	2.2	47	2.6	46	3.9	1	.2	------	------	------	------
107.5 and under 112.5	31	1.5	31	1.7	28	2.4	3	.6	------	------	------	------
112.5 and under 117.5	23	1.1	23	1.3	22	1.9	1	.2	------	------	------	------
117.5 and under 122.5	8	.4	8	.4	7	.6	1	.2	------	------	------	------
122.5 and over	17	.8	17	1.0	16	1.3	1	.2	------	------	------	------

As noted previously, all of the women employed in the industry were found in semiskilled occupations. Their average hourly earnings, 47.3 cents, were nevertheless lower than those for unskilled males. The distribution for these women, which with but a few exceptions extends from 32.5 to 62.5 cents an hour, contains two points of concentration; namely, 37.5–42.5 and 47.5–52.5 cents. This is scarcely significant, however, in view of the fact that all of the females were

employed in only 12 of the 21 establishments surveyed. In fact, woman employees were found in substantial numbers in only four plants, one of which employed more women than men. Inspection of the schedules for these establishments reveals the fact that in one firm a large number of women were paid exactly 40 cents, while in another most of them received 50 cents. This accounts for the two concentrations noted above, falling in the wage classes of which these sums are midpoints.

HOURLY EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION

The nature of the various operations involved in the manufacture of radio transmitters and related apparatus is indicated by the occupational structure in the industry. The principal occupations are assemblers, machinists, punch and drill press operators, sheet-metal workers, and testers. The fundamental processes in which these occupations are employed consist of building a metal framework, assembling in it various tubes, indicators, condensers, transformers, and other parts (usually purchased from other companies), and testing the completed equipment.

Assemblers not only were the most numerous but were among the lowest-paid employees in their respective skill classifications. (See table 4.) Skilled assemblers, all of whom were men, earned 72 cents an hour on the average. Tool makers, who averaged 98.1 cents, were the best-paid workers. Of the semiskilled men, the second-class sheet-metal workers received the highest average, 69.5 cents an hour, while the general helpers averaged 45 cents, which was the lowest in the industry. The 121 second-class assemblers averaged 51.1 cents. Only learners and service employees were classed as unskilled. The learners averaged 45.5 cents, and the service employees received 53.4 cents an hour.

The woman workers were engaged mostly in assembly operations. The largest group consisted of 165 transmitter assemblers, who earned 45.3 cents an hour on the average. The tube workers who perform tube-assembly operations, averaged 47.2 cents. The female miscellaneous clerks, receiving 50.7 cents, were the best-paid woman employees.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Radio Transmitter and Related Products Industry, by Sex, Skill, and Occupation, May 1938*

Sex, skill, and occupation	Number of employees	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
All workers	2,137	$0.681	38.5	$26.22
Skilled males	1,187	.796	39.3	31.31
Assemblers, first class	384	.720	39.4	28.38
Draftsmen	36	.819	41.4	33.93
Foremen, working	81	.924	42.2	39.00
Inspectors	51	.816	38.4	31.30
Testers	122	.810	36.9	29.91
Machine tool operators	70	.726	39.4	28.62
Machinists, first class	109	.881	38.3	33.76
Model makers	29	.725	41.6	30.16
Set-up men	29	.872	31.8	27.74
Sheet-metal workers, first class	34	.856	40.2	34.44
Tool makers	68	.981	39.2	38.50
Tube workers, first class	32	.924	36.7	33.91
Maintenance employees	35	.731	41.7	30.49
Miscellaneous skilled employees	107	.756	41.3	31.22
Semiskilled males	529	.568	38.4	21.82
Assemblers, second class	121	.511	40.4	20.65
Clerks, miscellaneous	34	.599	41.0	24.56
Drill-press operators	43	.572	38.1	21.78
Helpers, general	34	.450	37.2	16.78
Punch-press operators	45	.639	31.3	19.98
Sheet-metal workers, second class	52	.695	41.6	28.92
Stockmen and storekeepers	47	.591	39.6	23.40
Miscellaneous semiskilled employees	153	.561	37.3	20.92
Unskilled males	72	.508	43.4	22.04
Learners [1]	26	.455	38.8	17.64
Service employees	46	.534	46.0	24.52
Semiskilled females	349	.473	34.7	16.42
Assemblers	165	.453	31.8	14.40
Clerks, miscellaneous	41	.507	42.4	21.49
Tube workers	80	.472	37.3	17.59
Miscellaneous semiskilled employees	63	.496	34.1	16.95

[1] Includes a few apprentices.

It will be observed that the wages of male semiskilled assemblers are considerably higher than those of the females in the same occupations. This difference is due in part to the type of product upon which the two groups are employed. The men usually work on the heavier assembly jobs, while the women do lighter bench work.

Weekly Hours

FULL-TIME HOURS

The 40-hour week is almost universal in the industry. Of the 21 establishments surveyed, 14 with 1,953 wage earners had a workweek of 40 hours, 5 small plants with a total employment of 128 reported a 44-hour week, the 33 wage earners in one establishment worked 45 hours, and in the remaining establishment 43.5 hours.

The seven plants with a workweek of over 40 hours were among the eight whose employees received the lowest average hourly earnings in the industry. Only one establishment observing a 40-hour week paid an average of less than 57.5 cents an hour.

ACTUAL HOURS WORKED

The actual hours worked in the selected pay-roll period averaged 38.5 for all employees. Nearly one-half of the wage earners (48.1 percent) in the industry worked exactly 40 hours (table 5). Another sizable group (9.5 percent) was that working 44 and under 48 hours—representing largely the employees in companies having a normal workweek of 44 hours. Likewise, a further concentration occurred at 24 to 28 hours; most of these workers were employed in one plant, which was operating on a short-time schedule during the week surveyed. About one-twelfth (8.8 percent) of all employees worked 48 hours or more.

Male employees averaged 39.2 hours and female employees 34.7 in the week surveyed.

TABLE 5.—*Distribution of Workers in Radio Transmitter and Related Products Industry, by Average Weekly Hours and Sex, May 1938*

Average weekly hours	Total		Males		Females	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,137	100.0	1,788	100.0	349	100.0
Under 8 hours	11	0.5	4	0.2	7	2.0
8 and under 12 hours	21	1.0	16	.9	5	1.4
12 and under 16 hours	10	.5	10	.6	----	----
16 and under 20 hours	42	2.0	34	1.9	8	2.3
20 and under 24 hours	48	2.2	32	1.8	16	4.6
24 and under 28 hours	134	6.3	92	5.1	42	12.0
28 and under 32 hours	50	2.3	33	1.8	17	4.9
32 and under 36 hours	164	7.7	144	8.1	20	5.7
36 and under 40 hours	168	7.9	113	6.3	55	15.8
Exactly 40 hours	1,028	48.1	878	49.0	150	43.0
40.01 and under 44 hours	68	3.2	66	3.7	2	.6
44 and under 48 hours	204	9.5	191	10.7	13	3.7
48 and under 52 hours	94	4.4	80	4.5	14	4.0
52 and under 56 hours	28	1.3	28	1.6	----	----
56 and under 60 hours	17	.8	17	1.0	----	----
60 and over	50	2.3	50	2.8	----	----

Weekly Earnings

Weekly earnings of all employees in the industry averaged $26.22 in May 1938.[4] Over two-thirds (68.6 percent) earned $15 to $35 in the week surveyed, one-fifth received $35 or more, and only 11.3 percent were paid less than $15 (table 6).

The skilled males earned $31.31, as compared with $21.82 for the semiskilled, and $22.04 for the unskilled. The higher weekly earnings of the unskilled, as compared with the semiskilled males, were due to the fact that, although receiving lower hourly earnings, the unskilled workers were employed 5 hours longer on the average than the semiskilled males.

A comparison of the distributions for the three classifications by skill shows that, whereas only 10.3 percent of the skilled males earned

[4] For weekly hours and earnings by occupation see table 4.

under $20, 42.0 percent of the semiskilled and 41.7 percent of the unskilled males were paid less than this amount. On the other hand, 17.6 percent of the skilled males earned $40 or more, whereas only 2.5 percent of the semiskilled and none of the unskilled males were found in that class.

The average weekly earnings of females were $16.42. Over nine-tenths (90.6 percent) of the women received $10 and under $25 a week, 7.1 percent averaged under $10, and only 8 women in the group were paid $25 or more.

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of Workers in Radio Transmitter and Related Products Industry, by Average Weekly Earnings, Sex, and Skill, May 1938*

Weekly earnings	Total		Males						Females	
			Skilled		Semiskilled		Unskilled		Semiskilled	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,137	100.0	1,187	100.0	529	100.0	72	100.0	349	100.0
Under $5	17	0.8	2	0.2	2	0.4	1	1.4	12	3.4
$5 and under $10	46	2.2	12	1.0	20	3.8	1	1.4	13	3.7
$10 and under $15	178	8.3	42	3.5	49	9.3	6	8.3	81	23.2
$15 and under $20	404	18.9	67	5.6	151	28.5	22	30.6	164	47.1
$20 and under $25	443	20.7	194	16.3	161	30.3	17	23.6	71	20.3
$25 and under $30	309	14.5	221	18.6	67	12.7	15	20.8	6	1.7
$30 and under $35	309	14.5	248	21.0	53	10.0	8	11.1	-------	-------
$35 and under $40	209	9.8	192	16.2	13	2.5	2	2.8	2	.6
$40 and under $45	112	5.2	106	8.9	6	1.1	-------	-------	-------	-------
$45 and under $50	50	2.3	46	3.9	4	.8	-------	-------	-------	-------
$50 and under $55	30	1.4	27	2.3	3	.6	-------	-------	-------	-------
$55 and under $60	11	.5	11	.9	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
$60 and over	19	.9	19	1.6	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

FARM WAGE AND LABOR SITUATION, JULY 1, 1938

FARM wage rates on July 1, 1938, were somewhat lower than on the same date last year. The daily rate without board, for the entire country, averaged $1.70 as compared with $1.76 on July 1, 1937, while the rates in the various States ranged from 85 cents in Georgia and South Carolina to $2.95 in California, as against a range on July 1, 1937, from 80 cents in South Carolina to $3.15 in Connecticut. The United States Bureau of Agricultural Economics, from whose quarterly reports these figures are taken, attributes the lower wage level on July 1 of this year to the shifts in labor supply and demand. "As compared with a year ago, the decline in employment in nonagricultural industries has made more labor available in agricultural communities. On the other hand, the continued drop in prices of farm products and farm income has lessened the demand for the additional services." The supply of labor available for work on farms, taking the country as a whole, was reported as being 91.1 percent of normal

on July 1, 1938, as compared with 82.4 percent a year ago, with the demand averaging 83.7 percent of normal against 90.7 percent a year ago. The supply of labor, expressed as a percentage of the demand, averaged 108.8 percent on July 1, 1938, and 90.8 on July 1, 1937.

Table 1 shows average farm wage rates, supply of and demand for farm labor, and number of persons employed per farm, on July 1, 1938, as compared with April 1, 1938, April 1 and July 1, 1937, and the annual average 1910–14 for wage rates.

TABLE 1.—*Average Farm Wage Rates and Employment at Specified Periods*

Item	Annual average, 1910–14	Apr. 1, 1937	July 1, 1937	Apr. 1, 1938	July 1, 1938
Farm wage index	100	112	123	115	120
Farm wage rates:					
Per month, with board	$20.41	$23.38	$25.28	$23.86	$24.57
Per month, without board	$29.09	$34.16	$36.14	$34.81	$35.52
Per day, with board	$1.10	$1.16	$1.34	$1.20	$1.29
Per day, without board	$1.43	$1.58	$1.76	$1.63	$1.70
Supply of and demand for farm labor (percent of normal):					
Supply	----	87.2	82.4	93.1	91.1
Demand	----	86.6	90.7	81.6	83.7
Supply as percentage of demand	----	100.7	90.8	114.1	108.8
Number of persons employed per farm: [1]					
Family labor	----	1.97	2.19	1.95	2.20
Hired labor	----	.78	1.07	.79	1.09
Combined	----	2.75	3.26	2.74	3.29

[1] On farms of crop reporters.

Average farm wage rates per month and per day, with board and without board, on July 1, 1937 and 1938, are shown in table 2 by geographic division.

TABLE 2.—*Average Farm Wage Rates on July 1, 1937 and 1938, by Geographic Division*

Geographic division	Per month with board		Per month without board		Per day with board		Per day without board	
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
United States	$25.28	$24.57	$36.14	$35.52	$1.34	$1.29	$1.76	$1.70
New England	32.94	33.04	55.60	55.92	1.96	1.82	2.72	2.59
Middle Atlantic	31.44	30.07	48.24	46.44	1.85	1.79	2.47	2.37
East North Central	31.35	29.88	43.09	41.74	1.69	1.66	2.21	2.15
West North Central	29.17	29.19	39.95	39.51	1.60	1.54	2.14	2.06
South Atlantic	17.11	16.68	25.04	24.41	.89	.87	1.18	1.15
East South Central	16.70	16.18	23.68	23.28	.85	.81	1.07	1.03
West South Central	19.95	19.22	28.38	28.14	1.06	.98	1.34	1.27
Mountain	37.05	36.51	52.45	52.33	1.76	1.71	2.34	2.26
Pacific	46.49	44.68	67.11	66.83	2.14	2.11	2.97	2.81

SALARIES OF MEDICAL SOCIAL WORKERS, 1937

THE median annual salary of head medical social workers in the United States in 1937 was $2,400 in public relief departments as compared to $1,980 in private hospitals or clinics and $2,100 in mental

hospitals. The median salaries of medical case workers ranged from $1,620 in mental hospitals to $2,150 in agencies concerned with blindness, as shown in the following table giving the salaries of these workers by types of institution:[1]

Salaries of Medical Social Workers, 1937

Type of institution and position	Number of agencies	Number of workers	Annual salary				
			Lowest	Lower quartile	Median	Upper quartile	Highest
Head workers:							
Private hospital or clinic	238	239	$780	$1,620	$1,980	$2,400	$5,072
Public hospital or clinic	83	83	918	1,884	2,172	2,615	4,068
Mental hospital	35	37	1,260	1,806	2,100	2,379	2,960
Red Cross unit	18	18	1,980	2,100	2,220	2,400	3,084
Veterans' Administration unit	67	67	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,100	2,600
Public relief department	10	10	1,980	2,400	2,400	3,000	3,120
Agency concerned with blindness	9	9	1,800	1,920	2,130	3,000	3,000
Supervisors or assistant head workers:							
Private hospital or clinic	20	34	1,644	2,072	2,366	2,580	3,700
Public hospital or clinic	15	23	1,500	1,827	2,000	2,093	3,072
Public relief department	4	4	1,800	-------	2,250	-------	2,500
Case workers:							
Private hospital or clinic	135	506	832	1,472	1,628	1,812	2,700
Public hospital or clinic	66	332	720	1,500	1,621	1,706	2,412
Mental hospital	12	36	1,020	1,320	1,620	1,695	2,040
Red Cross unit	9	12	1,668	1,770	1,980	1,980	2,160
Public relief department	9	146	1,163	1,440	1,680	1,900	2,400
Agency concerned with blindness	1	5	2,000	-------	2,150	-------	2,500
Psychiatric case workers:							
Private hospital or clinic	22	29	1,272	1,800	2,000	2,103	2,850
Public hospital or clinic	9	28	1,440	1,656	1,824	1,975	2,520
Mental hospital	17	40	808	1,440	1,620	1,777	2,400
Red Cross unit	1	1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Veterans' Administration unit	14	22	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,100	2,200
Clinic workers:							
Private hospital or clinic	24	52	972	1,292	1,542	1,731	2,220
Public hospital or clinic	12	30	672	1,152	1,530	1,600	2,472
Mental hospital	1	1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Admission workers:							
Private hospital or clinic	31	40	840	1,296	1,572	1,788	2,880
Public hospital or clinic	10	15	1,152	1,225	1,320	1,533	1,872
Mental hospital	2	2	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Workers in training:							
Private hospital or clinic	8	15	1,020	1,440	1,560	1,620	1,692
Public hospital or clinic	7	13	624	624	900	1,392	1,740
Mental hospital	3	3	1,212	-------	1,320	-------	1,664
Public relief department	1	1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

The schedule used in collecting the above data requested for the individual worker information as to the monthly cash salary and also the number of meals per week and the number of rooms supplied as part of the remuneration. Allowance for maintenance as part of salary was made on the following basis:

	Per year
Room and meals	$420
Room	180
All meals	240
Two meals daily	144
One meal daily	72

[1] Russell Sage Foundation, Salaries in Medical Social Work in 1937, by Ralph G. Hurlin, New York, 1938.

These same values were allowed for maintenance as a part of remuneration in a similar survey in 1933. Such allowances were made regardless of the location of the employing agency and "represent a conservative estimate of the actual average value of the maintenance received by workers."

The influence of maintenance on the salary statistics of this report was not great, however. Neither rooms nor meals were included in the salaries of 45 percent of the 1,853 workers; some meals, usually lunches, were allowed 47 percent; and room and meals were accorded only 8 percent.

Maintenance is provided relatively most frequently in mental hospitals. Of 119 workers attached to such institutions, 51 percent received both room and meals, 23 percent some meals, 26 percent no maintenance. For medical social workers in private hospitals and clinics the percentages are: Room and meals, 5 percent; some meals, 63 percent; no maintenance, 32 percent. For public hospitals other than mental, they are: Room and meals, 7 percent; some meals, 53 percent; no maintenance, 40 percent. The Veterans' Administration does not provide maintenance as part of the salary of medical social workers, although in some of its units the workers have quarters at the hospital to which they are attached, for which deduction is made at a fixed rate. At two of the American Red Cross units, quarters, valued at $15 per month, are provided for medical social workers as part of compensation.

The median salaries of two groups of case workers are given below, showing for each the median salary of the total group, including allowance for maintenance if received, and the median salary of those who received no maintenance.

	Number of workers	*Median salary*
Case workers in private hospitals and clinics:		
Total group	506	$1,628
Workers receiving no maintenance	173	1,620
Case workers in public hospitals other than mental:		
Total group	332	1,621
Workers receiving no maintenance	147	1,680

From the foregoing comparisons the author of the report concludes that the allowances made for maintenance have probably not, on the average, been too low.

WAGES IN FRANCE, 1938

SUBSEQUENT to June 1936, when many measures favorable to labor were instituted by the Popular Front Government in France, wages steadily increased in all fields of industrial and commercial activity. A recent review prepared by the General Statistical Office of France showed that from the above date to October 1937, the average hourly wage for skilled workmen in Paris increased by 60 percent, or from 6.30 to 10.06 francs. Wages of common laborers in Paris increased by 74 percent, or from 4.09 to 7.12 francs per hour. Wages in cities other than Paris were lower and showed less increase: the average for men increased by 47 percent, or from 3.50 to 5.50 francs; for women the increase was from 2.26 to 3.08 francs per hour, or 36 percent.

The above figures are of course in a sense theoretical. In this report [1] are shown current wage rates in selected representative industries in Paris and in various parts of France. These are as a rule the minimum rates provided by collective-wage agreements. It is impossible to ascertain how far these minima vary from the actual wages paid. While the minimum rates are strictly followed in many cases, undoubtedly higher wages are often paid to many employees. For instance, a recent survey of the handkerchief industry showed that actual wages were on the average 25 percent above the rates provided by the collective agreement.

National wage scales rarely exist. Hence the rates given apply only to the region indicated, and a different scale may exist in the same industry in another part of France. As a general rule, wages are on an hourly basis, but there are exceptions, notably on the railways, where the basis is annual.

The following information relative to collective agreements, hours of labor, family allowances, paid vacations, and social-insurance contributions, applies to all wage earners unless otherwise noted in the section on the occupation concerned.

Collective Agreements

Collective labor agreements instituted by the law of March 25, 1919, were given a new impetus by the law of June 24, 1936, which provided that representative agreements could be made obligatory under ministerial decrees for all similar industries in a given region. These agreements usually contain wage scales in addition to provisions

[1] Data are from a report by Benjamin M. Hulley, American consul, Paris, France, prepared with the collaboration of the following consular officers: W. Perry George, Bordeaux; James G. Carter, Calais; Augustus Ostertag, Cherbourg; Reinhard W. Lamprecht, Le Havre; Leonard G. Dawson, Lille; Waldo E. Baily, Lyon; John P. Hurley, Marseille; Jack E. Cocke, Nantes; Paul C. Squire, Charles B. Beylard, vice consul, and Mrs. F. H. Langlois, clerk, Nice; and Laurence W. Taylor, Strasbourg, June 1938.

concerning trade-union liberty, labor delegates, notice of dismissal, apprenticeship, sanitary conditions, paid vacations, and arbitration of disputes. Under the law of 1919, over 2,200 collective agreements were signed in the succeeding 17 years. Since June 1936, on the other hand, about 5,000 collective agreements have been signed and registered at the Ministry of Labor. They cover all branches of industry and commerce, and in almost all cases have only a regional application, that is, for one city, industrial area, or geographical Department. About 200 of these agreements have been made obligatory by decree for all like industries in a specific area; such decrees continue to appear at a rate of 12 to 15 each month.

Hours of Labor

The 40-hour week was adopted in France by a law of June 21, 1936, which was made applicable by decrees to individual industries during the succeeding months. Generally speaking, it is now in force for all branches of industry and commerce; however, a somewhat shorter week of 38 hours and 40 minutes is applicable in underground mines. The working week is divided in various ways in each industry and varies also according to locality, the method of division being fixed by agreement between labor and employers. The most common division is the 5-day week of 8 hours per day. Other divisions are (1) one giving a half holiday on Saturday or Monday, or (2) one of 6 working days of 6 hours 40 minutes each. In most cases employees have two consecutive days of rest per week, on Saturday and Sunday, on Sunday and Monday, or from Saturday noon to Monday noon. In the French Government services the 48-hour week is still observed. There are no regulations governing hours of labor in agriculture.

Family Allowances

Under the law of March 11, 1932, which first went into effect October 1, 1933, and was gradually extended in the scope of its application, family allowances are paid to heads of families for each dependent child under 14, and in some cases, for children up to 16 years of age. The minimum payments fixed by decree vary widely in different parts of France, being highest in Paris, and less than half that amount in some Departments. The payments increase in size with the number of dependent children. The purpose of this law is to stimulate the birth rate. This system started in industry and commerce, and now includes many classes of agricultural workers. The funds from which family allowances are paid are contributed entirely by the employers, except in the case of certain agricultural workers. Contributions to the fund are payable for each employee, male or female, married or single, and may be based either on the

number of employees or on the total wage. Usually contributions are adjusted quarterly in order to make the payments required by law. Consequently contributions vary according to industry and locality, but in general are estimated at about 2 to 5 percent of the pay roll. During the past winter, family allowance rates were revised upwards in many Departments, and such scales are shown in table 1. In general the minimum rates are followed, but in some cases a higher rate is fixed by the collective agreement in a particular industry.

TABLE 1.—*Minimum Family Allowance Rates in France, Prescribed by Ministerial Orders*

Department	1 child		2 children		3 children	
	Per day	Per month	Per day	Per month	Per day	Per month
Commerce and industry						
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Aube	2.00	50.00	4.80	120.00	8.40	210.00
Seine (Paris), Seine, and Oise	2.40	60.00	6.40	160.00	12.40	310.00
Oise (except Creil, Rieux, and Erouis)	1.75	44.00	4.55	114.00	8.30	208.00
Oise (Creil, Rieux, and Erouis), Seine, and Marne	2.20	55.00	5.40	135.00	10.00	250.00
Allier, Ardèche, Drôme, Indre, Loir and Cher, Loir Inf., Pas-de-Calais, and Vosges	1.60	40.00	4.00	100.00	7.20	180.00
Lozère, Orn	1.20	30.00	3.00	75.00	5.00	125.00
Agriculture						
Aube	1.00	25.00	2.40	60.00	4.40	110.00
Indre et Loire	.70	17.50	1.60	40.00	3.00	75.00

Department	4 children		5 children		Each additional child above the fifth	
	Per day	Per month	Per day	Per month	Per day	Per month
Commerce and industry						
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Aube	12.80	320.00	------	------	6.00	150.00
Seine (Paris), Seine, and Oise	------	------	------	------	8.00	200.00
Oise (except Creil, Rieux, and Erouis)	------	------	------	------	4.80	120.00
Oise (Creil, Rieux, and Erouis), Seine, and Marne	------	------	------	------	6.40	160.00
Allier, Ardèche, Drôme, Indre, Loir and Cher, Loir Inf., Pas-de-Calais, and Vosges	11.20	280.00	------	------	4.80	120.00
Lozère, Orn	8.00	200.00	------	------	4.00	100.00
Agriculture						
Aube	------	------	------	------	3.20	80.00
Indre et Loire	4.80	120.00	6.80	170.00	2.40	60.00

Vacations with Pay

The law of June 20, 1936, granted annual paid vacations to all employees in industry, commerce, the liberal professions, domestic service, and agriculture. The minimum vacation is 15 days, including 12 working days, for every employee who has had 12 months' continous service with the same employer. Those who have not had 12, but have had at least 6 months' service, are entitled to 1 week of

vacation with pay. In some collective agreements, e. g., that of the Paris metal workers, it is provided that vacations shall be granted on the basis of 1 day for each month's work. It is usual for collective agreements to specify the vacation period as falling within certain summer months. This measure added about 4 percent to wage costs.

Social-Insurance Deductions

The compulsory social-insurance contribution for all employees in industry and commerce, having an annual wage of not over 30,000 francs and not covered by a separate system, is 8 percent of the wage, half of which is paid by the employer and half by the employee. However, contributions are not payable on that part of the wage which is in excess of 18,000 francs.

Flat rates are paid for agricultural workers who are divided into four classes, the annual premium ranging from 144 francs to 360 francs divided equally between employer and worker.

For mine workers, contributions for both old-age and sickness insurance amount to 14.5 percent of the wage, half of which is paid by the employee and half by the employer. However, contributions are not payable on that part of the wage which is in excess of 15,000 francs annually.

For old-age and invalidity insurance, railwaymen contribute 5 percent of their wages, the entire wage of the first month after permanent affiliation, and one-twelfth of any increase in annual wages. They make no contribution for sickness insurance.

The social-insurance contribution of seamen amounts to 16.3 percent of the wage, of which 6.95 percent is paid by the employee and 9.35 percent by the employer.

Wages in Manufacturing Industries

Wages are here shown for various representative industries in different sections of France: Metallurgy, textiles, paper manufacturing, potteries, glove manufacture, dairy and cheese industries, biscuit manufacturing, brewing and cognac industries, perfumery and essential oils industry, mining, French naval stores and lumber industries, transportation, shipping, stevedoring, building trades, and hotels.

METALLURGICAL INDUSTRY

Paris district.—The minimum guaranteed hourly wages of metal workers in the Paris district as fixed in the collective agreement of May 2, 1938, are shown in table 2. Hours worked above the 40 per week provided by law are paid for at the rate of time and one-quarter for the first 2 hours, time and one-third for additional hours, and time and one-half for night work, Sunday, and holidays. Other

extra payments include a meal allowance of 8 francs for night shifts, bus or car fare of 2 francs for the second day shift, a half-hour rest period paid for at the full rate for workers on continuous shifts, paid vacations between June 1 and October 15 at the rate of 1 day per month of work, and the family allowances prescribed by law.

TABLE 2.—*Hourly Wages in the Metal Industry, Paris Region, May 1938, by Occupation*

[Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938=2.81 cents]

Occupation	Hourly rate	Occupation	Hourly rate
	Francs		*Francs*
Boilersmiths, formers, and sheet-iron formers	11.86	Plumbers	9.91
Skilled tool workers—tracers, engravers, millers, fitters	11.55	Carpenters	9.79
Adjusters	11.21	Skilled machine workers:	
Ironsmiths, hand	11.21	Male	9.53
Machine manufacture—turners, millers, rectifiers, borers, mortisers, planers	10.82	Female	8.15
Welders	10.82	Boiler stokers	9.47
Sheet-iron makers	10.82	Skilled assemblers:	
Fitters	10.56	Male	9.34
Clockmakers	10.56	Female	7.62
Mechanics—setters	10.56	Warehousemen	9.21
Electricians	10.30	Laborers, heavy work	8.38
Locksmiths	10.18	Ordinary laborers:	
		Male	7.86
		Female	6.78

Strasbourg district.—The minimum daily wages of metal workers in this district as fixed by the collective agreement of April 2, 1938, for the entire metallurgical industry were as follows: Skilled workmen, including machinists, designers, pattern makers, molders, foundrymen, boilermakers, ladlemen, and blacksmiths, received from 39.75 to 43.42 francs per day. The highest rate was provided for workmen over 25 years of age with a minimum of 7 years' experience and qualifying as master workmen. The rate for specialized laborers, not apprenticed, operators of machines, helpers, and drivers ranged from 36.69 to 40.36 francs. Laborers doing heavy work were to receive 35.47 francs; and ordinary laborers, 35.02 francs. The rate for boys between the ages of 14 and 18 ranged from 12.23 to 22.01 francs, and those from 17 to 18 years who had finished their apprenticeship were to receive 26.91 francs per day. The rate for girls between the ages of 14 and 18 ranged from 9.17 to 16.51 francs. The rate for apprentices was set at 8.44 francs per day for the first half year, 9.17 francs for the second half year, 12.23 francs for the second year, and 18.35 francs for the third year.

The wages actually paid since February 17, 1938, in different localities in the Departments of Moselle and Meurthe-et-Moselle in certain branches of the metallurgical industry are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Daily Wages in the Iron and Steel Industry in the Departments of Moselle and Meurthe-et-Moselle, February 1938*

[Average exchange rate of franc in February 1938=3.28 cents]

Occupation	Blast furnaces	Steel mills	Rolling mills
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*
Skilled workers:			
First class	62.15–74.24	59.34–71.60	60.90–70.25
Second class	58.70–62.45	52.66–67.20	59.25–64.56
Third class	55.40–59.62	50.00–60.98	56.58–57.58
Specialized workers:			
First class	51.99–61.08	52.50–56.13	53.26–55.20
Second class	48.53–57.95	50.40–53.36	52.98–54.72
Third class	45.60–51.05	47.68–54.05	47.45–50.96
Classified laborers	49.47–62.10	46.80–50.80	45.45–57.54
Ordinary laborers	43.60–49.00	37.60–44.10	39.51–42.65

TEXTILE INDUSTRY

In the Lille district, the wages for the cotton and linen weaving mills, thread spinning mills, and cotton spinning mills were those fixed by the collective agreement of September 25, 1936, increased by 47.7 percent of the basic rates; for the bleaching, finishing, calendering, and creaming plants and the dyeing plants, those fixed by the agreement of October 13, 1936, increased by 45 percent of the basic rates with an additional hourly increase of 0.45 franc for men and 0.40 franc for women based on the higher cost-of-living index; and for the knitting mills, those fixed by the agreement of January 1937, increased by 40.0 percent of the basic rates and an additional hourly increase of 0.25 franc for men and 0.35 franc for women.

In general, overtime work is not encouraged; but in case of rush work time and one-quarter is paid in the silk and rayon mills in the Lyon district, while a 10-percent increase is paid for overtime in the velvet mills. Family allowances in this district range from 50 francs for one child to 320 francs for four children, and for each additional child above the fourth, 150 francs is to be paid. In the silk and rayon industry a lower rate is paid if both husband and wife work. The cost of vacations with pay in this district is estimated at about 4 percent of the annual pay roll.

Table 4 gives the average hourly wages in specified districts and branches of the textile industry, effective in May 1938.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Wages in the Textile Industry of Specified Districts, in France, May 1938*

LILLE DISTRICT

[Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938=2.81 cents]

Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rate
Cotton and linen weaving	
Weaving:	
Winders:	*Francs*
Linen, male	3.91
Cotton, male	3.75
Apprentice, male	2.23
Warpers, male	4.25
Weavers:	
Ordinary looms, male	3.97–5.15
Multiple looms, male	4.41–7.00
Other workers:	
Trimmers, male	6.85
Sizer, male	6.14
Sizer's assistant, male	4.69
Head yarn preparer, male	6.15
Yarn preparer, male	5.00
Gatherer, male	4.65
Gatherer, apprentice, male	2.15
Warp assemblers, male	4.13
Shearers, sharpeners, male	5.73
Reelers, male	4.03
Pickers, female	3.47
Thread spinning	
Winding:	
Winders, linen, female	3.53
Assemblers, female	3.64
Cleaners, pickers, female	3.51
Twisters:	
Heavy looms, female	3.66
Light looms, female	3.67
Reelers, female	3.38
Bundlers, male	4.78
Splicers, female	3.35
Finishers, male	4.49
Calenderers:	
Male	4.66
Female	3.58
Glazers:	
Male	3.97
Female	3.72
Polishers, female	4.09
Finishing:	
Winders:	
Automatic machines, female	3.54
Semiautomatic machines, female	3.38
Hand looms, female	3.32
Hand, female	4.68
Spindle tenders, unpolished and polished thread, female	3.50
Winders, sewing thread, female	3.78
Cotton spinning mills	
Coarse yarn:	
Carders, doffers, male	4.51

Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rate
Cotton spinning mills—Continued.	
Coarse yarn—Continued.	*Francs*
Winders, male	4.56
Card fixers, male	4.31
Scutchers, male	5.02
Grinders, male	5.16
Packers, male	4.69
Greasers	4.71
Oilers, male	4.90
Spinners, male	[1] 6.08
Piecers, male	[1] 2.40–4.80
Carders, male	4.00
Combers, female	[1] 3.58
Drawers, female	3.35
Rovers, male	3.39
Ring spinners, female	3.30
Ring twisters, female	3.47
Doublers, female	3.39
Laborers, male	4.28
Medium and fine counts:	
Spinners:	
Male	5.64
Beginners, male	1.71
Reelers:	
Female	2.62
Beginners, female	1.58
Carders, female	3.24
Combers, female	3.41
Drawers, female	3.30
Rovers, female	3.38
Ring spinners, female	3.44
Doublers, female	3.35
Winders, female	3.32
Knitting mills	
Winders, runners-on (fine gauge), female	4.34
Runners-on (coarse gauge), female	4.27
Linkers, female	4.27–4.55
Sewing-machine operators, female	4.41
Runners-on, female	4.55
Trimmers, female	4.41
Runners-on of toes, female	4.13
Folders, female	3.99
Inspectors, female	4.06
Pairers, female	4.13
Operators, circular machines, female	4.34
Rib top runners-on, female	4.13
Runners-on, male	4.45
Footers, male	6.56
Utility men	5.57
Laborers, male	4.87
Beginners:	
Girls, 14 years	[2] 1.54
Boys, 14 years	[2] 1.68

[1] Piece rate.
[2] Increased 0.10 franc each quarter.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Wages in the Textile Industry of Specified Districts, in France, May 1938*—Continued

LYON DISTRICT

Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rates, April 1938 [3]		Process, occupation, and sex	Average hourly rates, April 1938 [3]	
	Silk and rayon	Velvet		Silk and rayon	Velvet
Silk and rayon and velvet	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Silk and rayon and velvet*—Continued		
Winders, female	3.70	4.25–4.50			
Reelers, female	3.70	4.25–4.50	Finishers:	*Francs*	*Francs*
Warpers, female	4.50	4.75–5.00	Male	7.00	5.50–6.50
Weavers:			Female	----------	4.25–4.75
Male	4.70	----------	Dyers, male	8.15	8.15
Female	4.40	4.75–5.00	Printers, male	9.00	----------
Loom fitters, male	[4] 1,344.00	----------	Laborers, weaving, male	5.50	----------
Loom fitters' apprentices, male	4.00–5.75	----------			

[3] Average exchange rate of franc in April 1938=3.10 cents.
[4] Per month.

Bleaching, Finishing, and Calendering Plants

The collective agreement covering workers in these plants made no provision for piece work or for overtime work. The minimum hourly wage of operatives, not specialized, and various assistants was set at 6.74 francs. The minimum rate for male piece weighers, dryers, stretchers, tenters, finishers, cylinder operators, calenderers, shearers, stampers, cloth inspectors, folders, pressers, soapers, rinsers, and mercerizers, etc., was 6.10 francs per hour. The minimum rate for head workers engaged as chlorinators, stretchers, dryers, calenderers, washers, soapers, and packers was 6.45 francs per hour. In the maintenance department the minimum hourly rate for oilers and belt tenders was 6.39 francs; for painters, joiners, 6.45 francs; mechanics and electricians—first class, 7.48 francs, second class, 6.75 francs; for night watchmen the rate was 275.50 francs per week, and for truck drivers, 304.50 to 326.25 francs per week. The minimum hourly wage of women was 4.38 francs; of boys, 1.88 francs plus 0.10 franc per quarter; and of girls 1.74 francs with the quarterly increase of 0.10 franc.

Dyeing

The minimum hourly rate of assistant machine operators and laborers in dyeing plants was 5.88 francs; dyers, operators of washing and rinsing machines, shrinking, stretching, and drying machines, etc., were to receive a minimum wage of 6.25 francs; and head operators of machines, inspectors, finishers, folders, etc., a minimum rate of 6.61 francs. The minimum hourly rate of women was 4.31 francs for folding-machine operators, and operators of sprinkling and vaporizing machines. For apprentices, the minimum hourly rate was 1.88 francs, with an additional 0.10 franc per quarter.

PAPER INDUSTRY

The minimum basic hourly wage scale as of May 15, 1938, in the paper industry in the region of Paris is shown for different plant departments in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Minimum Hourly Wages in Paper Industry—Paris Region, May 1938, by Occupation*

[Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938=2.81 cents]

Occupation	Minimum hourly rate [1]	Occupation	Minimum hourly rate [1]
Pulp preparation		*Finishing room*	
	Francs		*Francs*
Head operators [2]	8.35–9.60	Supervisors	9.10
Operators [2]	7.90–9.40	Winders, calender operators, cutters	7.55–8.35
Assistant operators [2]	7.45–8.35	Winding machine helpers	7.15–7.55
Vat loaders and assistants	4.55	Cardboard spindle cutters:	
Operators, newsprint machines	8.65	Male	7.45
Second operators, newsprint machines	8.35	Female	5.40
Grinders, crushers	7.45	Handlers, weighers	7.85
Rag washers	7.40	*Sorting room*	
Chlorine workers	[3] 8.00		
Felt washers, fullers	7.35	Supervisor	6.85
Colorers	7.85	Shearer-trimmers	9.10
Machine room		Ripping-shearers	8.45
		Inspectors, samplers, checkers, shearers, female	6.40
Machine operators [2]	9.26–11.75	Assorter-checkers, female	6.05
First driers [2]	8.00–11.75	Adjustors, female	6.05
Second drier	5.05	Weighers, female	5.75
Second drier-unwinder	7.85	*Packing room*	
Assistant drier	7.30		
Chief winder [4]	8.45	Chief packers	8.60
Second winder [4]	6.85	Packers, newsprint rolls	8.20
Third winder [4]	7.95	Apprentices	6.90
		Packers, female	6.00
		Car or truck loaders	7.95–8.20
		Drivers, deliverymen	[5] 71.80–84.45

[1] Including bonuses and payments in kind.
[2] Rates vary according to speed of machine.
[3] Receive 2 liters of milk.
[4] On winding machine attached to paper machine.
[5] Per day. Rates vary according to size of truck.

Wages of power-plant employees ranged from 9.80 francs per hour for chief firemen to 7.50 francs for inspectors of water turbines, steam engines, and stations for pumping and treating water, while wages of maintenance employees ranged from 11.75 francs for skilled cabinetmakers and 10.10 francs for tool experts to 7 francs for stock keepers. The wages of young workers varied from 3.60 francs per hour for boys of 14 to 15 years of age to 6.75 francs for those 17½ to 18 years, while the corresponding rates for girls were 2.95 to 4.90 francs.

Minimum hourly wages in the cigarette-paper industry in Finistère in May 1938 are shown in table 6. The 5-day week, 8-hour day, were in effect and necessary overtime was paid for at rates 40 percent above the regular rate. The actual wages did not as a rule exceed the minimum rate.

TABLE 6.—*Minimum Hourly Wages in Cigarette Paper Industry, Finistère, May 1938, by Occupation*

[Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938=2.81 cents]

Occupation	Minimum hourly rate	Occupation	Minimum hourly rate
	Francs		*Francs*
Machine operators	6.50	Driers' helpers	5.40
Chemical workers	6.50	Wrappers	5.90
Refiners	6.50	Winders, female	5.00
Cutters	6.35	Rag sorters, female	5.00
Rinsers	6.15	Bench workers, female	4.50
Pulp pressmen	6.15	Tube workers, female	5.00
Bleachers	6.00	Laborers, skilled	5.90
Driers	5.90	Ordinary laborers	5.40

POTTERY INDUSTRY

In the pottery industry in the vicinity of Cherbourg the maximum daily wages of skilled workmen—turners and painters—were 40.30 and 46.20 francs, respectively, in May 1938. The minimum rates of specialized workmen were 27 francs per day and the maximum rates ranged from 31.90 francs for groovers to 38.20 francs for paste pattern makers. The minimum rates of women in this group were 17 and 18 francs and the maximum rates ranged from 22.40 francs for enamel repairers to 34.90 francs for trimmers. Repairers working on piece work, however, may average as much as 37.45 francs per day. The daily wages of ordinary and specialized laborers ranged from 27 to 32.80 francs per day. Engineers received from 1,000 to 1,440 francs per month. The rate for firemen on the day shift was 37.45 francs per day, with a special allowance of 24 francs a month and 4.70 francs per hour for overtime, while on night work the rate was 40.70 francs with a food allowance of 6 francs. The first year rate for boys between the ages of 14 and 18 was 12 francs per day and for girls, 10 francs.

GLOVE INDUSTRY

The hourly wages paid in the glove industry in the Grenoble district in April 1938 are shown in the following statement. Overtime rates were time and one-quarter for the first 2 hours and time and one-half thereafter. Family allowances ranged from 50 francs per month for one child to 470 francs for five children and 150 francs for each additional child above the fifth. One day's vacation with pay was granted for each month worked during the year. No housing was provided.

	Rate per hour (francs)
Parers	6.30
Skin dyers	10.30
Skin stakers	10.70

	Rate per hour (francs)
Glove cutters	6. 50
Glove dressers	5. 25
Sewers, machine	2.25–3. 00
Sewers, hand	2. 25

DAIRY AND CHEESE INDUSTRIES

The minimum monthly wages of workmen employed in dairies and cheese factories in the Cherbourg district in May 1938 averaged 765 francs for ordinary laborers, including milk handlers, assistant butter makers, apprentice molders, milk collectors, etc.; 815 to 820 francs for specialized laborers, including molders and cheese turners, weighmen, mechanical mixers, warehousemen, skinners, churners, mechanics etc.; and 870 francs for specialized workmen, including special condensed-milk workers, testing and laboratory workers, skilled butter and cheese workers, butter sorters, foremen, etc. The latter rate was also paid to a group of unclassified workers such as salesmen, engineers, and various maintenance workers. The wages of women ranged from 520 to 570 francs per month for occupations classed as laborers; 570 to 620 francs for specialized laborers; and 620 to 670 francs for specialized workers. Apprentices (boys under 20 years of age) earned from 312 to 566 francs, according to age, while those 18 to 20 years and specialized earned a minimum of 616 francs. The corresponding rates for girls under 20 years of age were 312 to 466 francs, and for those 18 to 20 and specialized, 516 francs.

If employees in these industries were boarded and lodged the following deductions were made from their monthly wages: 330 francs for men for board and 300 francs for women and 30 francs for both sexes for lodging, while the deductions for boys ranged from 200 to 250 francs, according to age, and from 200 to 230 francs for girls. The monthly deduction for housing families was at the rate of 25 francs per room, unfurnished, exclusive of light and heat. The additional allowance for workmen with families was 25 francs per month for one child, 60 francs for two children, 120 francs for three, 200 francs for four, and 100 francs for each child above the fourth.

Owing to the perishable nature of the products handled the 40-hour week had not yet been applied in these industries. Working hours were 9 per day and 54 per week, and in general overtime was not necessary. If overtime was worked, the rate for the first 2 hours was time and one-quarter and for each additional hour time and one-third.

BISCUIT INDUSTRY

In the biscuit industry in the region of Nantes in May 1938 bakers were paid 6.88 francs per hour; rollers, machine operators, loaders and ovenmen, and batter mixers, 6.64 francs; packers, paste mixers, flour mixers, 6.40 francs; and oven dischargers, semiskilled bakers, and handy

men, 6.22 francs per hour. The wages of women ranged from 4.23 francs per hour for packers to 4.65 francs for machine operators. The wages of mechanics and maintenance men ranged from 6.40 francs for assistant firemen to 7.84 for fitters, first class, while experienced automobile drivers received 1,161 francs per month and experienced delivery men 1,111 francs. Overtime rates were time and one-half for night work and time and one-third for work on Sunday. The family allowances ranged from 40 francs per month for one child to 280 francs for four children with 120 francs for each additional child above the fourth.

BREWING INDUSTRY

The weekly wages in the brewing industry in the Strasbourg region in February 1938 were 305 francs for brewers, foremen, truck drivers, and machinists; 298 francs for malsters, cellar workers, truck drivers, and general laborers; 291 francs for bottling-plant employees, helpers on trucks and wagons, and other workers with less than 3 years' service; and for young workers ranged from 160 to 197 francs, according to age. The overtime rate ranged from time and one-quarter for the first 3 hours on weekdays to time and one-half on Sunday and holidays.

FRENCH COGNAC INDUSTRY

Average weekly wages paid cellar foremen in the cognac industry in Bordeaux in May 1938 were 325 francs; to packers, 280 francs; to skilled workers, 250 francs; and to unskilled workers, 200 francs. The wages of all classes of female workers were 160 francs per week. Workers in the vineyards in the Departments of Charente and Charente-Inférieure averaged 30 francs per day or the equivalent in cash and payment in kind with board and lodging. Operators of stills were paid from 50 to 60 francs for an 8-hour day.

PERFUMERY AND ESSENTIAL OILS INDUSTRY

There is only one class of workers in this industry in Grasse (Maritime Alps) aside from the technicians and the employees on a monthly basis. The hourly rate for men in May 1938 was 5.20 francs and for women 3.55 francs. Overtime is allowed only in crop periods and, according to the day on which it is performed, is paid for at the rate of time and one-quarter to time and one-half.

MINING INDUSTRY

Coal Mining

The French 40-hour week became applicable to the coal-mining industry on November 1, 1936. Since that time various changes have taken place affecting wages, as well as the working and social conditions of the coal-mine employees. At the end of 1937 the num-

ber of persons employed by the coal-mining industry throughout France was 245,316, as against 231,951 at the end of 1936, and by the end of the first quarter of 1938 the number had risen to 246,984 persons, of whom 153,905, or 62 percent, were employed in the important Northern Basin, comprising the mines of the Departments of the Pas-de-Calais and the Nord.

Following consultations with mine operators and workers, decrees were issued regulating the working conditions of underground and surface workers; and the new working week became effective in the Northern Basin November 1, 1936. Owing to the need for increased production, the 8 additional days allowed under the law were worked during the following year, and it was provided by a decree issued December 21, 1936, that 12 extra days could be worked annually. The pay is increased 25 percent for the extra time worked. This increase in working time was accepted by the workers in the Northern Basin in all but a few mines but did not receive general acceptance throughout the country.

The duration of the underground worker's presence in the mine may not exceed 38 hours and 40 minutes per week nor 7 hours 45 minutes per shift. Duration of presence is reckoned from the time a miner leaves the surface until his return. In the mines in the Northern Basin the duration of the descent and ascent is about 4 minutes each, and the average time traveling underground is 48 minutes. As a daily break of 25 minutes for lunch is allowed, the actual working time is about 6 hours and 24 minutes. The hours of surface workers are, in general, 40 per week and 8 per day, with an uninterrupted rest of 48 hours including Sunday. However, certain exceptions to these hours are allowed.

In the mines of the Northern Basin about one-half of the underground workers, including hewers, loaders, truck drivers, and gallery cutters, are paid on a piece-work basis, according to the amount of coal extracted. The men work in groups of 5 to 50 men under a foreman paid separately by the mine operators. The earnings of the gang are calculated at the end of a 15-day period on the number of "berlines" (i. e., wagonettes with a capacity of 500 kilograms or 1,102 pounds). The rate per berline varies according to the obstacles and difficulties encountered in the vein and is determined by the foreman. In cases of disagreement between the foremen and the men as to the rate, the pit engineer is called in to make the decision. The lowest rate paid in recent years was approximately 4 francs and the highest 10 francs. The total earnings of the gang are divided according to the grade of the workers. There are four grades of hewers—grades 10, 9.3, 8.5, and 8. Grade 10 men are the most proficient and ordinarily the highest paid, while grades 9.3 to 8 are usually less efficient

hewers and juniors qualifying for the higher ratings. Approximately 33 percent of the underground workers are grade 10 men.

Following is an example of the way the earnings are divided: A gang of 25 men, comprising nine 10 grade hewers, eight 9.3 grade hewers, five 8.5 grade hewers, and three 8 grade hewers, extract, for example, 200 berlines of coal in a shift, each berline being assessed by the foreman at 5 francs. The total earnings of the gang for the shift would be 1,000 francs. The grade 10 man's ratio share is 100; that of the grade 9.3 man, 93; that of the grade 8.5 man, 85; and that of the grade 8 man, 80. Thus, in this case the total sum would be divided into 2309ths. The grade 10 men would receive 100/2309, or 43.31 francs each; the grade 9.3 men, 93/2309, or 40.27 francs each; the grade 8.5 men, 85/2309, or 36.81 francs each; and grade 8 men 80/2309, or 34.64 francs each. However, a minimum basic wage is guaranteed to piece workers. The average daily basic wage established February 15, 1938, was 48.18 francs, so that the minimum rates for the four grades were 48.18 francs, 44.81 francs, 40.95 francs, and 38.54 francs. These ninimum rates are increased by a changeable premium, which is at present 10 percent of the basic wage, and by another 20 percent in accordance with the provision of the 40-hour week law, which stipulated that its application should not change the earnings of the men. In other words, the men working 5 days per week are actually paid for 6 days. These additions bring the wages of a grade 10 man to 63.60 francs per week. A minimum rate of 46.86 francs, 43.58 francs, 39.83 francs, and 37.48 francs was set for graded workers put on inferior work and thus unable to earn the full rate of 48.18 francs. The minimum rate of these workers is also subject to a bonus of 10 percent and the additional 20 percent, which brings the minimum rates to 61.84 francs, 57.52 francs, 52.57 francs, and 49.47 francs for the respective grades. These minimum rates apply also to all underground laborers except laborers on clearing work. Such workers are subject to promotion from one class to another after delays of specified periods. The rates for young underground workers aged 16 to 20, who are not classified, ranged from 36.60 francs at age 16 to 46.20 francs at age 20. The basic wage of the lowest paid underground laborer of more than 21 years of age with the 10- and 20-percent bonuses was 49.68 francs per day.

Surface workers of 14 to 21 years of age received minimum rates, varying according to age and including the bonuses, ranging from 21.82 francs for boys aged 14 to 14½ years to 43.60 francs at age 20 to 21. The rates for female workers ranged from 21.82 francs for girls of 14 to 28.78 francs for women aged 18 and over. The rates for laborers on the surface over 21 years of age were 44.46 francs per day and for laborers in full possession of physical strength 46.20 francs. When skilled surface workers are called upon to work underground, they

receive a supplement or additional bonus equal to 15 percent of their normal wage for the period underground.

Supplementary bonuses varying according to conditions are paid for unhealthful work.

Workers who are heads of families are housed free except for a nominal upkeep charge ranging from 7 to 20 francs per month, and in practically all cases there is a small garden included. Single men are not furnished quarters. Free water is supplied, as well as free fuel amounting to about 4 tons of coal a year for each household, on which a cartage fee of 1 franc to 4 francs per ton is charged. All workers contribute 1.9 percent of their wages to locally organized sick-benefit societies under State control, the mining companies making an equal contribution. These societies are operated independently of the social-insurance system. Workers receive free medical treatment and appliances and a daily cash benefit ranging from 6 to 15 francs per day, in general the higher rate being paid for workers over 20 years of age. All workers, through payment to the Miners' Pension Fund, operated nationally, qualify for old-age pensions of 7,000 francs after 30 years' service, or proportionally for service of 15 to 29 years. The employer contributes an amount equal to the workers' contributions.

In the event of the worker being able to take advantage of the provisions of a law of April 7, 1936, granting a temporary allocation to miners at the age of 50 years with 20 years' service underground, he is entitled to a pension of 7,000 francs in 1938 at 52 years of age, in 1939 at 51 years of age, and in 1940 and thereafter at 50 years of age. The State makes occasional grants to the sick-benefit societies, amounting approximately to 20 francs per worker per year. A fund maintained by compulsory contributions by the workers, to which employers contribute an equal amount, provides about 3 tons of coal annually to workers after their retirement. Family allowances amount to 1.60 francs per day for the first child, 2.50 francs for the second, 3.50 francs for the third, 4.50 francs for the fourth, and 5.50 francs for the fifth and each child over that number, for each effective day of work, and are increased by 20 percent when the working period does not exceed 5 days per week. They represent an increase of 107 percent over the rates in effect prior to February 1, 1937. These allowances are also paid to sons and daughters who are heads of families for their brothers and sisters and for stepchildren, provided there is no plurality of payment. Workers called out during the night and on Sunday and holidays for exceptional and urgent work receive time and one-quarter for such overtime.

The deductions from the miners' wages on account of the three types of insurance amount to about 7.55 percent of their earnings,

of which 5.5 percent is paid to the pension fund, 1.9 percent to the sick-benefit fund, and 0.15 percent to the coal fund.

Iron Mines

The collective agreement adopted May 7, 1938, in the iron mines of Lorraine (Strasbourg district) established a rate of 40 francs per day for miners of the first class and 36 francs for miners of the second class and for loaders. The rate for men operating mechanical loaders was 37 francs. Truss builders and track layers received 35 francs per day and their helpers 30 francs. The rate for operators of electric trains was 35 francs and of horse trains 32.50 francs. Mine laborers received 30 francs. The wages of miners in open mines were 3 francs below those of underground miners. Young workers in the mine between the ages of 15 and 21 received from 15 to 29 francs, according to age, and above ground 10 to 26 francs.

Potash Mines

By the terms of the collective agreement, effective April 15, 1938, in the potash mines of Alsace, skilled workers over 20 years of age received 62 francs per day and 53.50 francs between the ages of 18 and 20. Skilled workers of these ages without a certificate of ability received 59.40 francs and 50.90 francs, respectively. Construction workers received 57.80 francs per day; machine operators, 57.20 francs; pickmen, 57.20 francs, and their helpers 52 francs; and loaders and shovelers, 51.70 francs. Elevator loaders and car handlers between the ages of 16 and 20 were paid from 40.50 to 47.50 francs. The daily wages of surface workers ranged from 24.60 francs for day laborers 14 to 15 years of age to 59.40 francs for skilled workers over 21.

FRENCH NAVAL STORES AND LUMBER INDUSTRIES

In the French naval stores industry the term "résinier" includes two classes of workers generally known in the American industry as gum dippers and gum gatherers. The résiniers are not generally paid on a wage or salary basis. In privately owned forests these workers receive one-half of the sale value of the crude gum gathered, and in Government-owned forests they receive two-thirds of the sale value. During the last 2 years French naval-stores workers in the private forests have been asking for an increase in their share of the crude gum but the landowners have opposed any change. It is estimated that one résinier can chip and take care of 5,000 "faces" (*carrés*) per year. In 1937 the average yield of crude gum per "face" was approximately 1.5 liters (1.58 quarts). The average sale price of crude gum for the 1935 season was 1.90 francs per liter. On this basis the résinier received, on an average, 7,125 francs from the sale of his

share of the crude gum. The résinier is able to work about 75 days per year at other occupations, such as cutting mine props, working in portable sawmills, etc. With an average wage for 1935 estimated at 35 to 40 francs per day for this type of work, the total average earnings of a résinier in the Department of the Landes during 1937 amounted to approximately 9,950 francs. The résinier is generally lodged and given a garden or small plot of tillable land. This payment in kind is estimated at approximately 900 to 1,000 francs per annum. There is no limitation on hours of work for the résiniers.

The unskilled labor in the stills is paid an average of 35 francs per day, and the manager of the still (*distillateur*) receives an average monthly salary of 900 francs and is generally lodged, and has a garden. Payments in kind are estimated to average 1,500 francs per year.

Woodcutters engaged in cutting and preparing mine props, railway ties, wood for the paper mills, and logs for the sawmills are paid on an average 7 francs per metric ton. These workers can earn an average of 40 francs per day. They receive no payment in kind and are subject to the social-insurance law as agricultural workers. In May 1938 loaders were receiving 3.50 francs per metric ton, and could earn from 40 to 45 francs per day.

In the sawmills skilled workers were receiving 4.00 francs per hour; and unskilled workers, over 18 years of age, from 2.75 to 3.25 francs per hour. Those under 18 years of age received from 1.50 to 2.00 francs. Teamsters were paid on an average 900 francs per month.

TRANSPORTATION

Railroads

All the main-line railways in France were united in a national system on January 1, 1938, and the wage scale is therefore Nation-wide. Railroad workers, in general, receive increases of about 3 percent of their salaries or wages every 6 months for the first 4 years with two similar increases after long service. The employees are divided into four groups. The first of these groups (the commissioned personnel), consisting of train and station employees, chiefs and subchiefs of laborers and maintenance workers, inspectors, station masters, etc., is divided into 18 wage classes. The minimum basic wages in force in May 1938 ranged from 8,600 francs per year for the lowest class to 19,540 francs for the highest, and the maximum from 11,200 francs to 51,740 francs, respectively The second (locomotive) group is divided into six wage classes made up of switch-engine drivers, firemen, yard engineers, and electric and locomotive engineers. The minimum rates for these workers ranged from 8,830 francs per year to 11,200 francs and the maximum from 11,260 francs to 18,400 francs. The minimum rates of the third group (maintenance employees), consisting of laborers, drivers' and electricians' helpers, foremen, inspectors,

assistant chief electricians, and the heads of electrical stations of the fourth class, ranged from 8,600 francs to 10,880 francs per year and the maximum from 11,200 francs to 18,780 francs. Shop workers, who form the fourth class, received minimum daily wages ranging from 27.50 francs for laborers to 31.80 francs for skilled workers and assistant foremen and a maximum rate ranging from 36.50 francs to 46.80 francs, respectively.

From April 1, 1937, permanent employees having a net annual wage of less than 30,000 francs were granted a special supplement to wages not to exceed 100 francs per month, and from October 1, 1937, an additional supplement of 1,200 francs per year was paid to workers earning less than 30,000 francs and of 1,000 francs for those earning more, with an annual supplement for minors and apprentices ranging from 300 to 600 francs. A residence allowance is made which varies according to the size of the city. It was raised twice in 1937 and in May 1938 was 3,630 francs for employees residing in Paris and proportionately less in other sections of the country.

Subways, Paris

Employees in Paris subways receive, in addition to their regular wages, a temporary annual supplement granted as of October 1, 1937, and a rent bonus of 2,700 francs for employees residing in Paris or within 25 kilometers of the city and a smaller amount if living farther from the city. The wages of chief engineers, as established in 1936, ranged from a minimum of 50,000 to a maximum of 70,000 francs a year; works' engineers, from 37,500 to 60,000 francs; and maintenance chiefs and inspectors from 31,500 to 45,000 francs; motormen, from 14,300 to 16,300 francs; and guards, linemen, etc., from 13,400 to 15,000 francs. The temporary annual supplement, based on earnings and date of employment, ranged from 1,000 to 3,000 francs.

Street Railways, Havre

The hourly wages of operating employees of the street-railway system of Havre are based on the 40-hour week divided into 6 days of 6 hours and 40 minutes. Conductors, motormen, and bus drivers are classified according to length of service. The average daily wages of these employees, established on January 1, 1938, were 41.95 francs for the class with over 20 years' service, 39.85 francs for those with 15 to 20 years' service, 38.15 francs with 10 to 15 years' service, 36.50 francs with 5 to 10 year's service, 35.20 francs with 1 to 5 years' service, and 34.35 francs with 1 year's service. Temporary employees or extras were paid a flat rate of 30.15 francs per day. Time and one-half was paid for overtime. Uniforms were to be furnished by the company. Employees received the usual Departmental family allowances and vacations with pay. Six percent of wages was deducted for the company pension fund.

SHIPPING INDUSTRY

Wages in the shipping industry were fixed by the national collective agreement of June 24, 1936, concluded between representatives of shipowners and of the marine workers' syndicates. In the Bouches-du-Rhone Department a special agreement was concluded covering six ports, including the port of Marseille. The national agreement and the supplementary regional one were made effective as of June 15, 1936. Since that time wages have been increased, and table 7 gives the scale which has been in effect since December 1937.

TABLE 7.—*Monthly Wages of Seamen in the Marseille District, 1938*

[Average exchange rate of franc in May 1938=2.81 cents]

Rank	Wages per month	Overtime rate per hour	Food allowance per day	Cost-of-living allowance per month
	Francs	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Francs*
Boatswain	825.00	7.10	22.00	75.00
Boatswain s mate	810 00	7.10	22.00	75.00
Able seaman	725.00	6.00	20 00	65.00
Ordinary seaman	640.00	5.40	20.00	65 00
Novice and mess boy	375.00	3.60	20 00	35.00
Cabin boy or apprentice	285 00	2.40	20.00	35.00
Chief stoker	825.00	7.10	22.00	75 00
Wiper	825.00	7.10	22.00	75 00
Stoker	790 00	6.50	20.00	65.00
Trimmer	725.00	6.00	20.00	65.00

STEVEDORING INDUSTRY

Wages of stevedores in Havre were fixed by an arbitral decision, February 28, 1938, at 63.50 francs for a day of 6 hours and 40 minutes from 8 to 11:20 a. m. and 1:30 to 4:50 p. m. The overtime and night rates were 16.50 francs per hour between 6 a. m. and 8 a. m. and 4:50 and 6:50 p. m., and 19 francs per hour between 11:20 a. m. and 1:20 p. m. and at night after 6:50 p. m. The rate for night shifts from 8 p. m. to 2:40 a. m. was 127 francs per shift and from midnight to 6:40 a. m., 138 francs per shift.

Talley men or checkers received 67.50 francs per day of 6 hours and 40 minutes whether or not a full day was worked. For overtime the rate ranged from 17.75 to 20.25 francs per hour. For work on night shifts the rate was 135 francs per shift or 146 francs for the late shift.

The social-insurance contribution amounted to 2 francs per day.

The basic wages of stevedores in Rouen in May 1938 were 59.50 francs per day of 6 hours and 40 minutes and at Bordeaux 55.50 for general cargo, 61.50 francs for coal passers, and 60.50 francs for handling pit props. At Rouen longshoremen received 6.70 francs per hour with an increase of 30 percent for overtime up to midnight and 75 percent after midnight, and time and one-half for work performed on Sunday and holidays. Paid vacations were provided for longshoremen.

BUILDING TRADES

Marseille.—The hourly rates for building workers, shown in table 8, were in effect in March 1938 in the Bouches-du-Rhone Department.

Overtime is authorized only in exceptional cases, but if worked the regular rate is paid for the first hour, time and one-quarter for the second hour, and time and one-half thereafter. Double time, however, is paid for overtime from midnight to 6 a. m., and on Sunday and holidays.

TABLE 8.—*Hourly Wages in the Building Trades in Marseille, March 1938*

[Average exchange rate of franc in March 1938=3.12 cents]

Occupation	Hourly wage rate	Occupation	Hourly wage rate
	Francs		*Francs*
Masons	8.52	Excavators	7.44
Skilled laborers	7.44	Crane operators	7.56
Skilled cement workers	9.00	Steam-shovel operators	9.60
Semiskilled cement workers	8.52	Carpenters	9.12
Concrete mixers and ironworkers	7.68	Asphalt workers, skilled	8.64
Tile layers	10.50	Plumbers	8.52
Tile layers, assistants	7.74	Metal fitters, locksmiths	8.34
Roofers	8.64	Riveters	8.04
Plasterers	9.00	Laborers	7.14

HOTELS

Nice.—Employees in the hotel industry of Nice are paid on a monthly basis and are entitled to board and lodging or, if the employer cannot provide it, to an additional 300 francs per month. The working hours are 48 per week. The amount of the family allowances depends upon whether one or both parents are employed. In the first case the allowance ranges from 40 francs per month for one child to 320 francs for four children and an increase of 150 francs for each additional child above the fourth and in the second case from 25 to 225 francs with 100 francs for each additional child above the fourth.

The monthly wages paid service and basement workers and kitchen workers in "de luxe" hotels for in-season and out-of-season work are shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Monthly Wages of Service and Kitchen Workers in "de Luxe" Hotels in Nice, January 1938*

[Average exchange rate of franc in January 1938=3.34 cents]

Occupation	Average monthly wages		Occupation	Average monthly wages	
	In-season	Out-of-season		In-season	Out-of-season
Service and basement	*Francs*	*Francs*	*Service and basement*—Con.	*Francs*	*Francs*
Head of linen room	1,000	675	Firemen	920–1,150	730–840
Linen-room helpers	550–700	450–560	Scrubwomen	805	675
Ironers	520–690	505–520	*Kitchen help*		
Washerwomen	750–1,150	730–1,120			
Dry cleaners and dyers	1,035	1,010	Cooks, assistant	1,850	1,850
Storekeepers	750–1,150	675–840	Helpers:		
Cellarmen	750–1,150	675–840	7 years' experience	1,380	1,380
Coffee cooks	805–1,035	730–840	5 years' experience	1,000	1,000
Kitchenware washers	1,035–1,150	785–900	Third	750	750
Silvermen	895–1,035	730–785	Apprentices (progressive scale)	290	290
Dishwashers	895–1,035	730–785	Employees' cooks	750–1,300	750–1,300
Kitchen boys	920	730			

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN W. P. A. EMPLOYMENT

FROM the beginning of the W. P. A. program late in the summer of 1935 to the end of November 1937, about 5,000,000 separate individuals were placed for varying periods on W. P. A. rolls. Less than one-sixth of these were continuously on the rolls. Some workers were unable to obtain private employment during any part of this period. This was true especially in declining occupations and industries, in certain areas, and among groups of workers where reemployment is most seriously hindered by approaching age. For most of the 5,000,000, the W. P. A. was a temporary aid during emergencies between jobs in private employment. These facts were revealed by a recent special analysis by the W. P. A.[1]

The exact number of separate individuals who obtained W. P. A. jobs during the period ending in November 1937 was 4,937,286. The peak of employment was in February 1936, when 3,035,852 persons were on the rolls. From this peak period in February 1936 to the end of November 1937, 760,646, or 15.4 percent of the aggregate of 4,937,286 separate individuals employed by W. P. A., were on the rolls continuously. Most of those who left the W. P. A. did so for the purpose of taking jobs in private employment. They were encouraged to do this by assurances that they could return to the W. P. A. rolls if they lost their jobs through no fault of their own.

A supplementary analysis was made of W. P. A. rolls during May and June 1938, when private employment was still falling off after several months of declining business. During these 2 months, 567,000 persons were assigned to W. P. A. projects. More than half of these had not previously appeared on W. P. A. rolls. During the same 2 months (May and June 1938), about 320,000 persons left W. P. A. projects, and 250,000 of these, or 77.0 percent, left voluntarily and in most cases to take private jobs. Among the other 70,000 who left the W. P. A. during these 2 months, some were transferred because of eligibility for unemployment compensation or other benefits under the social-security legislation. Others were discharged because of cancelation of certification of need or for other reasons.

[1] Works Progress Administration. Press release 4-1745, August 5, 1938, on Turn-over in Project Employment.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, JUNE 1938

MORE people were hired in manufacturing establishments in June than in any other month since January, and lay-offs were less numerous. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' monthly survey of labor turn-over, the accession rate in manufacturing establishments increased from 2.84 per 100 employees in May to 3.44 in June. The June lay-off rate, at 3.69 per 100 employees, was slightly lower than in May, when the rate was 3.82. The rate was nearly twice as high, however, as in June 1937. June discharges were 0.11 and the quits 0.61 per 100 workers; both rates have remained fairly steady for several months. With the exception of February, the total separation rate, 4.41, was lower than for any month since August 1937.

Of the 23 industries for which separate rates are published, 13 had lower lay-off rates than in May and 3 had lower lay-off rates than in June 1937. The June 1938 accession rate was above that for May in 14 industries. Compared with the same month of last year, 10 industries showed higher accession rates.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau's survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,000 representative manufacturing establishments, which in June 1938 employed nearly 2,125,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 23 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing approximately 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows the total separation rate, classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates, and the accession rate for each month of 1937 and for the first 6 months in 1938 for manufacturing as a whole. The average monthly rates for 1937 are also presented.

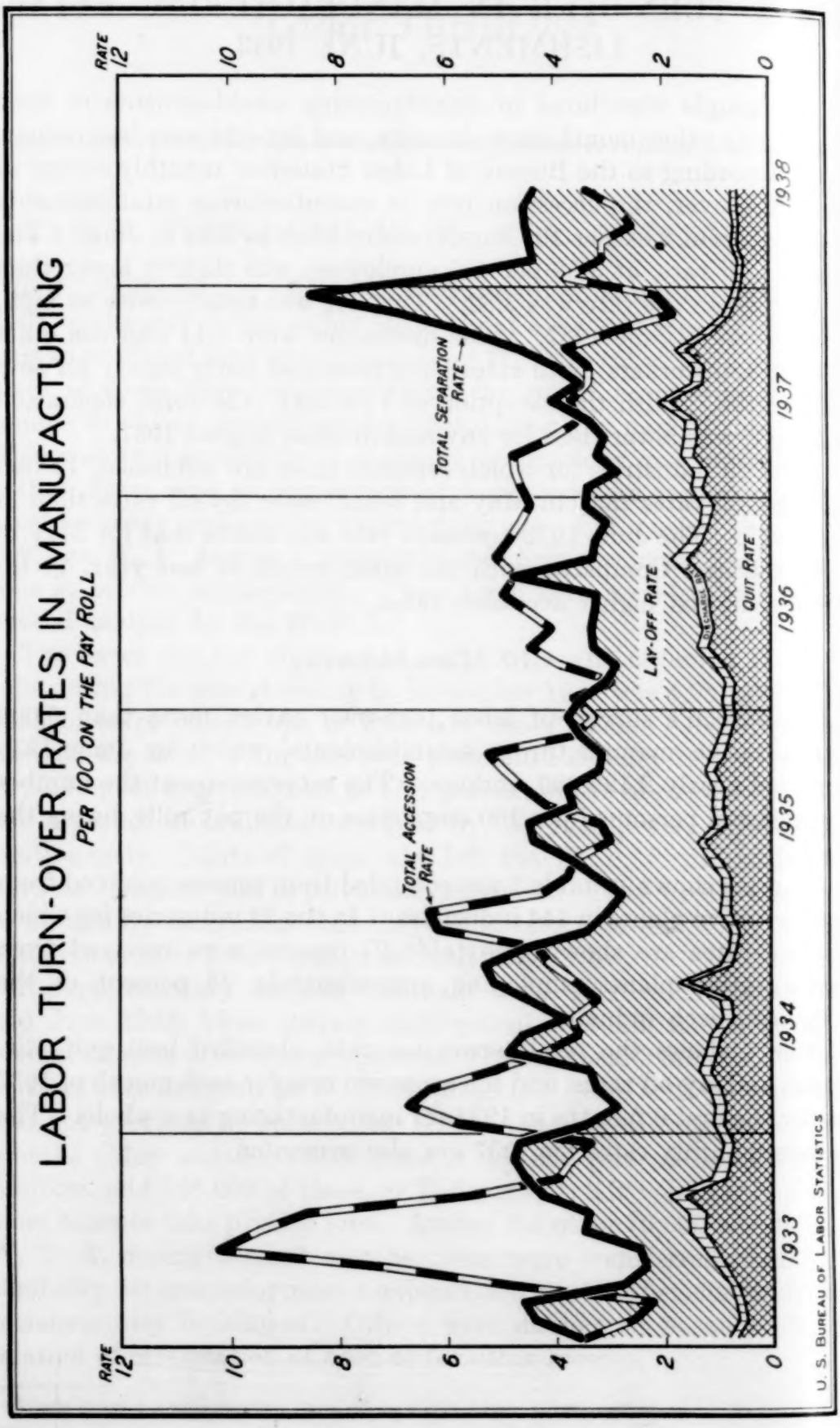

LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING
PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL
RATE
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
TOTAL ACCESSION RATE
TOTAL SEPARATION RATE
LAY-OFF RATE
QUIT RATE
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Factories in 144 Industries*

Class of rate and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Quit:													
1938	0.52	0.49	0.61	0.59	0.62	0.61							
1937	1.27	1.19	1.43	1.38	1.37	1.89	1.25	1.23	1.59	1.05	0.72	0.60	1.25
Discharge:													
1938	.11	.11	.11	.10	.13	.11							
1937	.21	.22	.24	.23	.21	.19	.21	.19	.19	.19	.16	.14	.20
Lay-off:[1]													
1938	5.45	3.79	3.74	3.85	3.82	3.69							
1937	1.90	1.44	1.53	1.48	1.79	1.94	2.06	2.57	2.84	4.45	5.99	7.77	2.98
Total separation:													
1938	6.08	4.39	4.46	4.54	4.57	4.41							
1937	3.38	2.85	3.20	3.09	3.37	4.02	3.52	3.99	4.62	5.69	6.87	8.51	4.43
Accession:													
1938	3.78	3.13	3.13	2.58	2.84	3.44							
1937	4.60	4.71	4.74	4.04	3.56	3.69	3.36	3.36	3.78	2.84	1.79	2.12	3.55

[1] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Twenty-Three Industries

Detailed turn-over rates for 23 selected manufacturing industries are listed in the accompanying table which gives the number of quits, discharges, and lay-offs, total separations, and total accessions per 100 employees in reporting firms in June and May 1938 and June 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*

Class of rates	June 1938	May 1938	June 1937	June 1938	May 1938	June 1937	June 1938	May 1938	June 1937
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Quit	0.19	0.37	1.31	0.48	0.56	1.67	0.81	0.66	1.01
Discharge	.05	.05	.15	.07	.06	.29	.11	.08	.16
Lay-off	7.57	9.91	2.62	12.69	10.82	4.69	3.13	5.34	2.01
Total separation	7.81	10.33	4.08	13.24	11.44	6.65	4.05	6.08	3.18
Accession	2.54	1.91	2.51	4.65	3.81	3.95	5.07	1.36	4.60
	Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cement			Cigars and cigarettes		
Quit	0.42	1.26	1.40	0.29	0.71	0.81	1.09	1.09	1.69
Discharge	.13	.08	.34	.10	.07	.13	.08	.07	.07
Lay-off	5.08	5.68	3.73	5.70	8.57	.92	1.32	.64	1.18
Total separation	5.63	7.02	5.47	6.09	9.35	1.86	2.49	1.80	2.94
Assession	5.48	10.13	4.99	7.58	8.92	2.83	2.57	2.07	3.38
	Cotton manufacturing			Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops		
Quit	0.91	0.92	1.91	0.59	0.58	1.19	0.71	0.36	1.59
Discharge	.14	.18	.26	.03	.11	.16	.06	.08	.29
Lay-off	3.22	4.39	3.03	3.48	5.36	.91	5.31	4.78	1.98
Total separation	4.27	5.49	5.20	4.10	6.05	2.26	6.08	5.22	3.86
Accession	4.52	4.09	3.94	1.82	1.32	4.10	1.80	1.31	3.89

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Specified Industries*—Continued

Class of rates	June 1938	May 1938	June 1937	June 1938	May 1938	June 1937	June 1938	May 1938	June 1937
	Furniture			Hardware			Iron and steel		
Quit	0.47	0.42	1.31	0.44	0.45	1.14	0.40	0.35	12.76
Discharge	.23	.15	.36	.07	.07	.17	.03	.04	.08
Lay-off	2.97	3.71	2.09	3.71	4.32	2.45	3.42	2.75	.60
Total separation	3.67	4.28	3.76	4.22	4.84	3.76	3.85	3.14	13.44
Accession	4.61	4.43	4.41	1.19	.90	1.70	1.12	1.37	2.51
	Knit goods			Men's clothing			Petroleum refining		
Quit	0.82	1.47	1.17	0.84	0.75	1.13	0.40	0.19	0.49
Discharge	.09	.10	.12	.06	.04	.05	.04	.07	.05
Lay-off	2.18	2.54	1.53	7.64	9.54	5.57	1.28	1.27	1.83
Total separation	3.09	4.11	2.82	8.54	10.33	6.75	1.72	1.53	2.37
Accession	2.96	2.37	1.97	10.13	4.28	4.59	2.05	1.79	3.06
	Printing and publishing						Radios and phonographs		
	Book and job			Newspapers					
Quit	0.32	0.37	0.79	0.36	0.25	0.56	0.85	1.25	(1)
Discharge	.14	.17	.22	.08	.04	.07	.28	.05	(1)
Lay-off	2.68	2.77	4.15	2.39	1.02	2.26	4.24	12.19	(1)
Total separation	3.14	3.31	5.16	2.83	1.31	2.89	5.37	13.49	(1)
Accession	3.29	2.96	4.08	1.30	1.48	1.46	6.54	6.68	(1)
	Rayon			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Quit	0.80	0.43	0.95	0.47	0.71	0.83	1.01	1.12	2.57
Discharge	.10	.25	.14	.04	.02	.12	.22	.24	.28
Lay-off	2.88	1.53	.15	.96	1.02	1.49	6.61	5.17	2.68
Total separation	3.78	2.21	1.24	1.47	1.75	2.44	7.84	6.53	5.53
Accession	1.77	3.94	4.30	1.32	1.92	.60	5.59	5.19	6.77
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Woolen and worsted goods					
Quit	0.51	0.45	0.76	0.56	0.74	1.20			
Discharge	.16	.14	.17	.04	.05	.08			
Lay-off	5.27	4.51	4.50	5.62	4.97	3.17			
Total separation	5.94	5.10	5.43	6.22	5.76	4.45			
Accession	6.40	7.29	6.49	9.00	13.93	4.13			

[1] Data not available.

Employment Offices

OPERATIONS OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, JULY 1938

A CONTRASEASONAL gain in jobs found in private employment and a continuation of the rise in the number of persons actively registered for work were outstanding in the report of July operations of the United States Employment Service. Although the total of 227,632 placements of all types made during July was slightly lower than the volume reported in June, the rate of placements in private employment was 1.7 percent higher than in June. This is the first time since 1935 that a gain has occurred from June to July.

It is significant to note that the gain in private placements was confined to jobs of regular duration (that is, those expected to last longer than 1 month) and that the rate of increase for men was twice as high as that for women. Normally, during periods of falling placements, Employment Service records show that the greatest declines are found in regular jobs and that the decreases of the placements of men are larger than for women. The present betterment in placements for these categories therefore is of special interest. Men were placed in 90,335 private jobs and women in 65,956. In addition to these placements employment offices made 71,341 placements in public employment.

The rate of total current applications for jobs dropped 3.2 percent. This decline was accounted for by a drop of 6.4 percent in the daily rate of new applications, while the rate of renewals increased 1.4 percent. Almost one and one-quarter million applications were received during the month, 705,140 from new applicants being registered and 533,750 previous applications being renewed to an active status. Despite the decline in daily rate, the volume of new applications represented an increase of 138 percent over the volume received in July last year. This large increase is probably in part due to requirements necessitating registration with employment offices before claims for unemployment compensation benefits may be filed.

During July 10,516,152 personal visits were received at the chain of offices affiliated with the United States Employment Service throughout the country. The facilities of the Employment Service in July included 1,607 full-time offices and 1,868 additional points served through itinerant facilities.

As a result of the continued inflow of applicants, the Employment Service active file gained 3.3 percent to a total of 8,087,891 registrants at the end of the month. This is the highest total since May 1936 and represents a gain of 63.7 percent above the level reported in July 1937, 1 year ago. The number of men in the active file increased 3.1 percent to 6,367,463 from the end of June and the number of women increased 3.8 percent to a total of 1,720,428.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Operations of United States Employment Service, July 1938*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		June 1938 [1]	July 1937	July 1936
Total applications	1,238,890	−3.2	+86.1	+47.6
New applications	705,140	−6.4	+138.0	+77.8
Renewals	533,750	+1.4	+44.1	+20.6
Total placements	227,632	−1.5	−33.3	−48.0
Private	156,291	+1.7	−24.7	+32.6
Public [2]	71,341	−7.8	−46.6	−77.7
Active file (end of month)	8,087,891	+3.3	+63.7	+20.1

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in month.
[2] Includes relief placements.

The number of veterans seeking work through the Employment Service again declined in July. At the month end 435,094 veterans were registered, a drop of 1.8 percent during the month. A total of 11,777 placements of veterans were reported in July, 6,489 of which were in private employment. Activities of the Employment Service for veterans are summarized in table 2 below.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Veteran's Activities, July 1938*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		June 1938 [1]	July 1937	July 1936
Total applications	47,349	+0.5	+37.2	+15.8
New applications	21,068	−2.8	+138.2	+85.0
Renewals	26,281	+3.4	+2.4	−10.9
Total placements	11,777	−8.1	−41.1	−54.8
Private	6,489	−5.6	−35.2	+49.3
Public [2]	5,288	−11.1	−45.3	−71.9
Active file (end of month)	435,094	−1.8	+64.0	+13.7

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in month.
[2] Includes relief placements.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, July 1938*

Division and State	Placements					Field visits	Applications			Active file, July 31, 1938	Personal visits
	Total	Private			Public		Total	New			
		Number	Percent of change, from June [1]	Regular (over 1 month)				Number	Percent of change, from June [1]		
U. S.	227,632	156,291	+2	71,493	71,341	128,465	1,238,890	705,140	−6	8,087,891	10,516,152
New England	10,655	7,402	+20	5,518	3,253	4,360	63,711	38,455	−36	768,968	1,090,520
Maine	2,296	1,291	+25	1,135	1,005	1,356	9,509	3,724	−24	45,103	87,676
N. H	1,861	1,372	+33	877	489	743	6,177	2,021	−47	45,573	52,697
Vt	1,010	628	+4	459	382	270	3,393	1,439	−8	18,122	18,246
Mass	1,646	1,119	+4	830	527	908	22,692	15,862	−26	379,750	527,861
R. I	741	612	+9	448	129	223	7,456	5,715	−61	95,244	161,010
Conn	3,101	2,380	+28	1,769	721	860	14,484	9,694	−31	185,176	243,030
Middle Atl.	25,962	19,911	−1	9,829	6,051	9,466	262,839	152,286	−25	2,194,270	3,138,251
N. Y	12,793	9,916	−13	4,894	2,877	1,568	138,905	72,422	−38	637,374	1,916,926
N. J	3,624	3,307	+18	1,444	317	3,493	28,900	13,465	−29	237,380	74,487
Pa	9,545	6,688	+14	3,491	2,857	4,405	95,034	66,399	−2	1,319,516	1,146,838
E. N. Central	32,711	24,636	−0	12,737	8,075	21,049	325,314	205,391	+20	1,674,816	1,609,127
Ohio	7,926	5,214	−5	2,485	2,712	5,917	49,600	29,754	−8	460,813	204,049
Ind	4,319	3,712	−9	2,316	607	4,510	37,366	25,057	−26	207,181	406,805
Ill	10,296	8,727	−2	3,783	1,569	5,804	54,253	25,112	+11	324,916	171,790
Mich	3,763	2,556	+25	1,483	1,207	2,298	144,916	109,496	+66	541,849	618,753
Wisc	6,407	4,427	+6	2,670	1,980	2,520	39,179	15,972	+0	140,057	207,730
W. N. Central	33,262	21,643	+61	9,720	11,619	16,669	90,915	43,107	−7	689,169	461,378
Minn	7,565	5,868	+54	2,818	1,697	6,249	19,156	9,980	−12	210,676	174,452
Iowa	7,240	4,360	+48	1,336	2,880	2,838	19,198	8,488	−16	91,898	126,826
Mo	3,402	2,458	+4	1,217	944	2,815	24,574	12,858	−4	206,078	58,810
N. Dak	5,505	4,722	+263	3,033	783	1,202	7,593	3,788	+84	30,669	31,768
S. Dak	2,053	1,047	+72	429	1,006	442	3,299	1,498	−22	39,113	14,781
Nebr	4,402	1,930	+56	563	2,472	2,109	8,050	2,984	−20	53,940	30,353
Kans	3,095	1,258	+6	324	1,837	1,014	9,045	3,511	−7	56,795	24,388
S. Atlantic	27,221	14,921	+4	8,962	12,300	11,941	141,235	82,738	−8	991,353	1,343,009
Del	1,194	798	−7	370	396	315	3,490	1,525	+21	14,415	12,947
Md	2,966	2,243	+15	1,564	723	1,214	17,469	8,358	−32	99,587	216,187
D. C	1,796	1,689	−19	823	107	320	9,716	5,387	+6	51,728	69,600
Va	4,203	2,308	+4	1,778	1,895	2,167	20,042	11,047	+2	89,813	170,646
W. Va	2,947	1,227	+8	790	1,720	1,500	16,330	10,922	−37	230,841	308,936
N. C	6,569	4,390	+13	2,736	2,179	1,870	28,671	16,733	−14	170,584	420,033
S. C	2,128	647	−3	226	1,481	857	14,442	9,172	+24	90,251	71,555
Ga	4,248	1,619	+4	675	2,629	3,519	22,927	13,601	+27	148,647	52,331
Fla	1,170	0	.....	0	1,170	179	8,148	5,993	+5	95,487	20,774
E. S. Central	15,192	6,268	+2	4,597	8,924	4,192	79,973	48,581	+1	537,876	592,850
Ky	2,737	655	−14	283	2,082	454	15,517	8,641	+8	120,931	30,184
Tenn	3,667	2,174	−3	1,528	1,493	1,699	15,025	10,607	−6	167,003	227,243
Ala	2,786	1,322	−20	989	1,464	976	22,216	14,220	−14	177,741	204,620
Miss	6,002	2,117	+40	1,797	3,885	1,063	27,215	15,113	+21	72,201	130,803
W. S. Central	37,550	29,838	−20	7,487	7,712	35,520	112,734	56,727	−1	471,516	955,569
Ark	2,491	2,069	−19	408	422	1,779	6,452	3,409	−26	70,538	22,676
La	2,610	1,927	+7	1,289	683	1,899	21,808	14,690	−0	124,018	149,331
Okla	2,763	1,826	−63	473	937	1,240	10,318	4,919	+11	35,247	37,791
Tex	29,686	24,016	−14	5,317	5,670	30,602	74,156	33,709	−0	241,713	745,771
Mountain	17,215	11,921	−2	4,583	5,294	8,236	48,790	19,718	−10	211,134	256,490
Mont	2,582	1,499	−8	846	1,083	1,509	6,080	3,209	−7	37,665	31,096
Idaho	2,680	1,625	−27	490	1,055	1,404	9,389	2,000	−36	12,482	29,422
Wyo	1,346	615	+24	369	731	368	2,731	940	−19	7,488	15,624
Colo	5,748	4,976	+13	1,434	772	2,432	11,732	4,582	−10	56,884	54,897
N. Mex	907	439	−30	225	468	974	4,990	2,557	+28	32,716	23,729
Ariz	1,159	783	−27	417	376	476	5,478	3,222	+4	31,438	47,451
Utah	1,714	1,289	+6	357	425	543	6,516	2,562	−18	28,827	44,633
Nev	1,079	695	+29	445	384	530	1,874	646	−16	3,634	9,638
Pacific	26,829	19,363	+1	7,930	7,466	16,807	111,843	56,780	+6	540,938	1,061,067
Wash	3,028	2,251	+19	586	777	1,716	14,116	5,971	−1	119,365	71,028
Oreg	5,702	2,670	−24	1,717	3,032	1,904	11,268	7,008	−13	96,213	155,398
Calif	18,099	14,442	+5	5,627	3,657	13,187	86,459	43,801	+11	325,360	834,641
Alaska	258	139	+23	89	119	138	311	213	−62	1,586	4,226
Hawaii	777	249	+32	41	528	87	1,225	1,144	+24	6,265	3,665

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in month.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, July 1938*—Continued

MEN

Division and State	Placements					Applications			Active file, July 31, 1938
	Total	Private			Public	Total	New		
		Number	Percent of change from June [1]	Regular (over 1 month)			Number	Percent of change from June [1]	
United States	160,633	90,335	+2	34,287	70,298	927,646	503,449	−3	6,367,463
New England	6,756	3,559	+22	2,442	3,197	42,404	23,147	−35	548,046
Maine	1,585	582	+40	470	1,003	7,271	2,330	−25	34,854
New Hampshire	1,391	913	+22	502	478	4,405	1,250	−42	32,889
Vermont	715	334	+20	228	381	2,469	888	−16	14,040
Massachusetts	1,066	553	+16	400	513	15,285	10,076	−27	275,246
Rhode Island	345	232	+17	169	113	4,311	3,087	−58	60,533
Connecticut	1,654	945	+17	673	709	8,663	5,466	−30	120,484
Middle Atlantic	15,715	9,799	+0	4,712	5,916	182,995	98,468	−23	1,670,696
New York	7,572	4,738	−19	2,187	2,834	92,114	42,959	−38	442,184
New Jersey	1,227	914	+14	559	313	20,055	8,822	−32	189,124
Pennsylvania	6,916	4,147	+31	1,966	2,769	70,826	46,687	+3	1,038,388
East North Central	19,065	11,174	+1	4,921	7,891	247,741	154,913	+20	1,399,517
Ohio	4,795	2,116	−6	846	2,679	38,058	22,833	−7	361,194
Indiana	2,116	1,521	−11	722	595	26,039	17,662	−28	167,155
Illinois	5,816	4,315	+7	1,678	1,501	39,653	17,322	+17	263,729
Michigan	2,230	1,030	+8	517	1,200	114,743	85,476	+57	466,122
Wisconsin	4,108	2,192	+7	1,158	1,916	29,248	11,620	+7	111,317
West North Central	26,820	15,297	+113	6,007	11,523	68,819	30,184	−3	559,050
Minnesota	5,430	3,750	+115	1,500	1,680	13,380	6,508	−11	167,697
Iowa	5,815	2,957	+91	655	2,858	14,388	5,833	−17	74,221
Missouri	2,258	1,315	+6	507	943	18,691	9,284	−2	170,882
North Dakota	4,860	4,082	+486	2,658	778	6,390	3,109	+151	24,388
South Dakota	1,812	818	+136	289	994	2,402	868	−22	31,319
Nebraska	3,976	1,533	+106	302	2,443	6,424	2,051	−18	45,098
Kansas	2,669	842	−2	96	1,827	7,144	2,531	+2	45,445
South Atlantic	19,293	7,166	−2	3,575	12,127	107,349	61,107	−4	763,838
Delaware	774	380	+4	169	394	2,416	989	+18	10,775
Maryland	1,851	1,128	+1	700	723	12,845	5,404	−32	77,125
District of Columbia	634	547	−30	259	87	5,823	3,286	+7	34,536
Virginia	3,082	1,199	+2	908	1,882	14,903	8,091	+6	66,342
West Virginia	2,325	622	+6	406	1,703	13,220	8,579	−36	201,963
North Carolina	3,882	1,729	−7	720	2,153	20,581	11,745	−7	116,607
South Carolina	1,939	468	+9	117	1,471	11,757	7,223	+31	70,670
Georgia	3,699	1,093	+5	296	2,606	19,286	11,241	+34	114,772
Florida	1,107	0	-------	0	1,107	6,518	4,549	+8	71,058
East South Central	12,117	3,307	−10	2,252	8,810	67,090	29,451	+6	437,359
Kentucky	2,243	239	−33	43	2,004	12,846	6,830	+16	98,415
Tennessee	2,408	916	−21	581	1,492	11,692	8,350	−1	133,071
Alabama	2,344	908	−23	619	1,436	18,521	11,582	−10	144,308
Mississippi	5,122	1,244	+28	1,009	3,878	24,031	12,689	+29	61,565
West South Central	27,441	19,822	−22	3,049	7,619	86,915	41,864	−0	380,760
Arkansas	1,686	1,281	−23	109	405	5,279	2,739	−23	58,741
Louisiana	1,583	905	−3	613	678	16,505	10,663	−2	100,961
Oklahoma	1,768	852	−72	70	916	8,184	3,793	+18	29,837
Texas	22,404	16,784	−15	2,257	5,620	56,947	24,669	+2	191,221
Mountain	13,968	8,755	−1	2,957	5,213	39,934	14,606	−8	177,533
Montana	2,363	1,298	−7	714	1,065	5,077	2,416	−10	32,128
Idaho	2,252	1,203	−29	231	1,049	8,309	1,579	−38	11,273
Wyoming	1,159	430	+30	253	729	2,267	694	−18	6,182
Colorado	4,536	3,784	+20	874	752	8,598	2,929	−9	45,508
New Mexico	743	286	−35	114	457	4,088	1,877	+26	27,449
Arizona	857	490	−31	287	367	4,694	2,728	+13	27,213
Utah	1,182	769	−0	168	413	5,323	1,881	−16	24,600
Nevada	876	495	+27	316	381	1,578	502	−10	3,180
Pacific	18,527	11,156	−5	4,289	7,371	83,079	38,545	+6	423,641
Washington	2,427	1,666	+25	281	761	11,645	4,359	−1	104,290
Oregon	5,239	2,217	−14	1,432	3,022	9,066	5,246	−11	77,593
California	10,861	7,273	−8	2,576	3,588	62,368	28,940	+11	241,848
Alaska	229	111	+6	66	118	255	162	−70	[2] 1,454
Hawaii	702	189	+70	17	513	1,065	1,002	+38	5,569

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in month.

[2] Estimated.

TABLE 3.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, July 1938*—Continued

WOMEN

Division and State	Placements				Applications			Active file, July 31, 1938
	Total	Private			Total	New		
		Number	Percent of change from June [1]	Regular (over 1 month)		Number	Percent of change from June [1]	
United States	66,999	65,956	+1	37,206	311,244	201,691	−14	1,720,428
New England	3,899	3,843	+18	3,076	21,307	15,308	−39	220,922
Maine	711	709	+14	665	2,238	1,344	−22	10,249
New Hampshire	470	459	+62	375	1,772	771	−54	12,684
Vermont	295	294	−9	231	924	551	+10	4,082
Massachusetts	580	566	−5	430	7,407	5,786	−25	104,504
Rhode Island	396	380	+5	279	3,145	2,628	−63	34,711
Connecticut	1,447	1,435	+36	1,096	5,821	4,228	−32	54,692
Middle Atlantic	10,247	10,112	−2	5,117	79,844	53,818	−28	523,574
New York	5,221	5,178	−7	2,707	46,791	29,463	−37	194,190
New Jersey	2,397	2,393	+20	885	8,845	4,643	−23	48,256
Pennsylvania	2,629	2,541	−6	1,525	24,208	19,712	−12	281,128
East North Central	13,646	13,462	−1	7,816	77,573	50,478	+21	275,299
Ohio	3,131	3,098	−3	1,639	11,542	6,921	−10	69,619
Indiana	2,203	2,191	−8	1,594	11,327	7,395	−23	40,026
Illinois	4,480	4,412	−9	2,105	14,600	7,790	−1	61,187
Michigan	1,533	1,526	+41	966	30,173	24,020	+110	75,727
Wisconsin	2,299	2,235	+4	1,512	9,931	4,352	−15	28,740
West North Central	6,442	6,346	+1	3,713	22,096	12,923	−15	130,119
Minnesota	2,135	2,118	+2	1,318	5,776	3,472	−14	42,979
Iowa	1,425	1,403	+0	681	4,810	2,655	−15	17,677
Missouri	1,144	1,143	+3	710	5,883	3,574	−10	35,196
North Dakota	645	640	+6	375	1,203	679	−17	6,281
South Dakota	241	229	−12	140	897	630	−21	7,794
Nebraska	426	397	−19	261	1,626	933	−25	8,842
Kansas	426	416	+27	228	1,901	980	−23	11,350
South Atlantic	7,928	7,755	+11	5,387	33,886	21,631	−19	227,515
Delaware	420	418	−15	201	1,074	536	+28	3,640
Maryland	1,115	1,115	+33	864	4,624	2,954	−33	22,462
District of Columbia	1,162	1,142	−12	564	3,893	2,101	+3	17,202
Virginia	1,121	1,109	+5	870	5,139	2,956	−7	23,471
West Virginia	622	605	+11	384	3,110	2,343	−42	28,878
North Carolina	2,687	2,661	+30	2,016	8,090	4,988	−28	53,977
South Carolina	189	179	−23	109	2,685	1,949	+4	19,581
Georgia	549	526	+3	379	3,641	2,360	+2	33,875
Florida	63	0	.....	0	1,630	1,444	−4	24,429
East South Central	3,075	2,961	+18	2,345	12,883	9,130	−19	100,517
Kentucky	494	416	+3	240	2,671	1,811	−14	22,516
Tennessee	1,259	1,258	+16	947	3,333	2,257	−20	33,932
Alabama	442	414	−12	370	3,695	2,638	−28	33,433
Mississippi	880	873	+62	788	3,184	2,424	−9	10,636
West South Central	10,109	10,016	−14	4,438	25,819	14,863	−5	90,756
Arkansas	805	788	−11	299	1,173	670	−37	11,797
Louisiana	1,027	1,022	+17	676	5,303	4,027	+5	23,057
Oklahoma	995	974	−48	403	2,134	1,126	−10	5,410
Texas	7,282	7,232	−9	3,060	17,209	9,040	−5	50,492
Mountain	3,247	3,166	−6	1,626	8,856	5,112	−13	33,601
Montana	219	201	−14	132	1,003	793	+2	5,537
Idaho	428	422	−22	259	1,080	421	−30	1,209
Wyoming	187	185	+11	116	464	246	−24	1,306
Colorado	1,212	1,192	−6	560	3,134	1,653	−12	11,376
New Mexico	164	153	−20	111	902	680	+33	5,267
Arizona	302	293	−19	130	784	494	−27	4,225
Utah	532	520	+16	189	1,193	681	−25	4,227
Nevada	203	200	+32	129	296	144	−32	454
Pacific	8,302	8,207	+12	3,641	28,764	18,235	+6	117,297
Washington	601	585	+6	305	2,471	1,612	−2	15,165
Oregon	463	453	−51	285	2,202	1,762	−20	18,620
California	7,238	7,169	+23	3,051	24,091	14,861	+11	83,512
Alaska	29	28	+250	23	56	51	+70	[2] 132
Hawaii	75	60	−23	24	160	142	−28	696

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in month.

[2] Estimated.

TABLE 4.—*Operations of United States Employment Service, July 1938*

VETERANS

Division and State	Placements					Applications			Active file, July 31, 1938
		Private					New		
	Total	Number	Percent of change from June [1]	Regular (over 1 month)	Public	Total	Number	Percent of change from June [1]	
United States	11,777	6,489	−6	1,989	5,288	47,349	21,068	−3	435,094
New England	420	208	−15	120	212	2,588	1,191	−33	41,701
Maine	77	21	−13	17	56	409	93	−30	2,916
New Hampshire	76	59	+9	26	17	301	63	−50	2,431
Vermont	27	17	−19	12	10	145	46	+5	825
Massachusetts	59	32	+7	24	27	1,072	620	−23	23,448
Rhode Island	25	19	−30	6	6	189	110	−68	3,868
Connecticut	156	60	−32	35	96	472	259	−20	8,213
Middle Atlantic	1,028	576	−6	234	452	6,616	3,117	−12	91,997
New York	393	226	−33	74	167	2,147	889	−29	21,814
New Jersey	88	76	+19	35	12	1,090	317	−12	11,911
Pennsylvania	547	274	+28	125	273	3,379	1,911	−1	58,272
East North Central	1,474	842	−6	302	632	12,455	6,859	+8	104,287
Ohio	336	187	+2	53	149	2,422	1,282	−2	30,787
Indiana	141	114	−5	47	27	1,573	982	−27	13,662
Illinois	479	323	−15	89	156	2,284	816	+4	21,071
Michigan	184	73	−14	39	111	3,955	3,004	+33	30,336
Wisconsin	334	145	+9	74	189	2,221	775	+15	8,431
West North Central	1,976	1,099	+43	281	877	4,295	1,449	−11	47,746
Minnesota	373	236	+74	73	137	884	354	−16	14,356
Iowa	681	365	+20	45	316	952	282	−33	6,210
Missouri	133	76	−26	24	57	1,201	503	+5	15,510
North Dakota	205	155	+356	84	50	253	82	+128	1,499
South Dakota	148	65	+27	22	83	156	30	−23	2,423
Nebraska	233	118	+111	23	115	360	105	−3	3,782
Kansas	203	84	0	10	119	489	93	−19	3,966
South Atlantic	1,233	501	−1	261	732	5,164	2,255	−4	45,154
Delaware	47	24	+33	12	23	136	47	+104	860
Maryland	161	94	+3	61	67	758	213	−28	4,940
District of Columbia	87	63	−26	16	24	513	237	−13	3,641
Virginia	156	81	−11	60	75	694	279	+2	3,774
West Virginia	252	38	−27	19	214	621	316	−34	10,148
North Carolina	183	92	+14	39	91	887	346	+13	4,904
South Carolina	113	26	−21	18	87	432	223	+19	3,622
Georgia	177	83	+51	36	94	717	328	+34	6,740
Florida	57	0	0	0	57	406	266	+5	6,525
East South Central	611	142	−25	83	469	2,626	1,230	−2	26,820
Kentucky	223	20	−41	3	203	742	208	−2	7,400
Tennessee	134	32	−48	17	102	499	331	−6	8,889
Alabama	120	38	−36	28	82	736	388	−8	8,088
Mississippi	134	52	+49	35	82	649	303	+13	2,443
West South Central	2,046	1,499	−20	221	547	4,377	1,675	−6	24,713
Arkansas	92	70	−55	8	22	348	124	−16	3,782
Louisiana	95	59	−16	38	36	578	363	−8	6,460
Oklahoma	243	161	−39	7	82	513	213	−23	3,152
Texas	1,616	1,209	−13	168	407	2,938	1,035	+2	11,319
Mountain	1,105	556	+8	176	549	2,773	827	+7	13,577
Montana	217	108	+13	56	109	418	207	+30	2,524
Idaho	215	84	−21	18	131	673	96	−21	812
Wyoming	111	27	+23	6	84	165	40	−5	441
Colorado	270	204	+15	50	66	595	162	−2	3,326
New Mexico	48	12	−52	4	36	198	68	−1	2,104
Arizona	65	34	−3	18	31	280	140	+20	2,357
Utah	104	47	+147	6	57	317	95	+13	1,779
Nevada	75	40	+14	18	35	127	19	+36	234
Pacific	1,812	1,047	−15	309	765	6,347	2,375	+10	38,554
Washington	206	129	+10	19	77	871	224	−18	9,565
Oregon	448	157	−24	86	291	500	211	−0	6,155
California	1,158	761	−17	204	397	4,976	1,940	+15	22,834
Alaska	17	6	−33	2	11	15	7	−61	[2] 102
Hawaii	55	13	+30	.....	42	93	83	+66	443

[1] Adjusted for number of working days in month.

[2] Estimated.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR JULY 1938

Total Nonagricultural Employment

TOTAL nonagricultural employment, exclusive of Works Progress Administration and other Federal emergency projects, showed virtually no change between June and July 1938, whereas declines of approximately 140,000 workers are usually shown in June. Factors contributing to offset the usual seasonal decrease were a slightly contraseasonal gain in factory employment and an increase of approximately 14,000 workers on class I railroads. While retail-trade establishments employed approximately 100,000 fewer workers in July, the current decrease was smaller than the average July decrease of the preceding nine years.

Employment gains in private industries were reported for 26 States. Among the more important industrial States reporting gains were Massachusetts, North and South Carolina, Maine, and Rhode Island, in which the hiring of large numbers of workers by cotton and woolen mills was the chief factor. Decreased activity in coal mining and in the manufacture of durable goods products accounted largely for the declines in Pennsylvania, Michigan, Ohio, Illinois, and New York.

There was an increase in July in the number of persons engaged on work programs financed from Federal funds with the exception of P. W. A. projects. The most marked gains in employment occurred in the Civilian Conservation Corps, on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, and on projects financed from regular Federal appropriations. In the regular services of the Federal Government increases occurred in the executive, legislative, and military services and a decrease was reported in the judicial service.

Industrial and Business Employment

Manufacturing industries reported a gain of 0.4 percent in employment and no change in pay rolls between mid-June and mid-July. Normally factory employment declines by about 1 percent and factory pay rolls by about 4 percent in July, largely because of inventory shutdowns and the July 4 holiday.

As compared with last July, factory forces were reduced by one-fourth and their pay rolls by one-third.

The principal increases in factory forces since June were in the nondurable goods industries, in which employment expanded 3 percent, principally because of reemployment in the woolen and cotton goods industries, in men's clothing and shoes, and in the seasonal food industries, such as canning. Many of the heavy manufacturing industries continued to reduce employment. The decrease for the durable goods group as a whole was 2.7 percent. The most pronounced losses were in plants manufacturing machinery and transportation equipment, in particular agricultural implements, automobiles, foundry and machine-shop products, engines and tractors, and electrical machinery.

Wage-rate reductions were reported in 38 manufacturing industries, affecting 48,123 wage earners out of a total of 3,716,819 for whom data were reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Most of the reductions were in cotton mills, in which nearly 31,000 workers received wage cuts. Factories manufacturing shoes, paper and pulp, and woolen goods reported wage reductions affecting about 10,000 workers.

In the nonmanufacturing industries employment declines were largely seasonal. The decline of 3.0 percent in retail-trade employment, indicating a reduction of about 100,000 workers, was the smallest percentage decrease in any July during the past 9 years, except 1929, 1933, and 1936, when the decreases were 2.0 percent, 3.0 percent, and 2.7 percent, respectively.

The decrease of 4.4 percent in the general merchandising group was the smallest decline recorded in July in any recent year. The apparel group dropped 12.2 percent of its workers and the furniture group 3.8 percent between mid-June and mid-July, while the food and automotive groups reduced their forces slightly. Employment in retail lumber and building materials increased by 0.9 percent, hardware by 0.5 percent, and drug stores by 1.5 percent. Firms dealing in coal, wood, and ice employed 3.9 percent more workers than in June. Country buyers and wholesale firms dealing in farm products reduced their forces sufficiently to offset small employment gains in other lines of trade, such as groceries, food, and petroleum, resulting in a net reduction of nearly 10,000 employees in wholesale trade as a group.

There were greater than seasonal reductions in employment in anthracite mines, which laid off 20.3 percent, or 16,300, of their workers, and in metal mines where 6,900 workers (11.4 percent) were laid off. Bituminous-coal mines reduced their forces seasonally by 1.9 percent, affecting 7,400 workers, oil producers laid off 0.9 percent of their workers, and quarrying firms added 1.1 percent to the number on their rolls. Year-round hotels and dyeing and cleaning plants reported seasonal reductions in forces, 1.7 percent and 2.0 percent, respectively. Brokerage houses added employees for the first time since last Novem-

ber, insurance firms reported the fifth successive monthly gain, and laundries increased their forces seasonally by 1.1 percent. Private building contractors reported a somewhat smaller than average increase in employment on jobs, exclusive of projects financed by the Public Works Administration, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, and regular appropriations of the Federal, State, and local governments. The number of workers employed by public utilities as a whole remained practically unchanged.

Class 1 railroads increased their forces for the second consecutive month. According to a preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission, they had 929,477 employees (including 11,876 executives, officials, and staff assistants) in July, a gain of 14,389 or 1.6 percent since June. July pay rolls for railroads were not available when this report was prepared. For June they amounted to $140,391,948 as against $132,928,271 for May, an increase of $7,463,677 or 5.6 percent.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by factory wage earners was 34.9 in July, a gain of 1.3 percent since June. Average hourly earnings were 63.9 cents or 1.1 percent lower than in the preceding month, while average weekly earnings dropped 0.5 percent to $22.17.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, only bituminous-coal mining and private building construction showed gains in average hours worked per week. Average hourly earnings, however, rose for 7 of these 14 industries. Average weekly earnings were higher for 7 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed.

Prior to January 1938, the wording of the definition on the schedules for public utilities, wholesale and retail trade, hotels, and brokerage and insurance firms called for the inclusion of higher-salaried employees such as corporation officers, executives, and others whose duties are mainly supervisory. These employees have, for the most part, always been excluded from employment reports for other industries, and beginning with January it was requested that they be omitted also for the industries named above. For this reason the average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for these industries are not comparable with the figures appearing in reports dated earlier than January 1938.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in July 1938 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals except in the few industries for which data are not available, are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, July 1938 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, July 1938	Percentage change from—		Index, July 1938	Percentage change from—		Average in July 1938	Percentage change from—	
		June 1938	July 1937		June 1938	July 1937		June 1938	July 1937
	(*1923–25 =100*)			(*1923–25 =100*)					
All manufacturing industries combined [1]	76.1	+0.4	−25.0	67.2	0.0	−33.1	$22.17	−.05	−10.8
Class I steam railroads [2]	52.0	+1.6	−20.9	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	(*1929 =100*)			(*1929 =100*)					
Coal mining:									
Anthracite [4]	44.6	−20.3	−17.8	20.2	−59.4	−47.2	14.76	−49.0	−35.8
Bituminous [4]	78.6	−1.9	−16.0	56.8	−.3	−26.9	19.27	+1.6	−12.9
Metalliferous mining	49.5	−11.4	−39.6	37.8	−17.8	−51.4	23.84	−7.2	−19.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	44.1	+1.1	−20.6	37.0	−.9	−27.3	21.38	−2.0	−8.4
Crude petroleum producing	72.1	−.9	−8.1	66.7	−1.2	−5.4	33.42	−.3	+2.9
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	74.9	+.2	−6.0	90.9	−[5]	−1.4	$30.19	−.2	+4.9
Electric light and power and manufactured gas	92.5	+.3	−5.1	98.5	−.2	−3.7	$33.50	−.5	+1.5
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance	70.1	−.4	−4.5	69.0	−.9	−2.6	$32.20	−.6	+2.0
Trade:									
Wholesale	86.6	−.7	−4.4	73.6	−.2	−4.3	$29.76	+.5	+.1
Retail	81.1	−3.0	−7.4	68.1	−1.9	−6.5	$21.72	+1.1	+1.1
General merchandising	87.9	−4.4	−8.4	80.4	−4.5	−7.9	$18.33	−.2	+.5
Other than general merchandising	79.3	−2.6	−7.1	65.6	−1.3	−6.1	$24.41	+1.4	+1.1
Hotels (year-round) [6 7]	90.7	−1.7	−3.1	77.4	−2.7	−2.4	$14.61	−1.1	+.7
Laundries [4]	97.7	+1.1	−7.6	82.9	+1.3	−6.9	17.29	+.1	+.8
Dyeing and cleaning	108.6	−2.0	−2.2	77.5	−6.9	−2.5	19.85	−5.0	−.4
Brokerage	[3]	+2.3	−15.6	[3]	+3.9	−21.8	$34.05	+1.5	−7.2
Insurance	[3]	+.4	+2.1	[3]	+1.3	−2.0	$36.70	+.9	−4.0
Building construction	[3]	+1.3	−31.8	[3]	+1.8	−32.9	29.52	+.5	−1.7

[1] Revised indexes; adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures.
[2] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.
[3] Not available.
[4] Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, Employment and Pay Rolls.
[5] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[6] Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.
[7] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

The number working on Public Works Administration projects decreased 7,000 in July due to the completion of many of the projects financed from N. I. R. A. funds and E. R. A. A. 1935 funds. New contracts are being awarded for the 1938 P. W. A. program, funds for which were made available in July, but the effect of this new program has not yet been reflected in the employment figures. Of the 110,000 at work in July, 20,000 were engaged on Federal and non-Federal projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, 90,000 on non-Federal projects financed from funds provided by the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937, and 325 on Federal projects started with funds provided by the new

Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938. Pay-roll disbursements of $9,001,000 were $773,000 less than in June.

Employment on projects financed from regular Federal appropriations continued to increase, due in large part to seasonal expansion in road construction work. In July 236,000 were working on projects financed from regular Federal appropriations, a gain of 14,000 from June. Gains in employment were reported on projects with the exception of the following types: Building construction, electrification projects of the Rural Electrification Administration, forestry, heavy engineering, and water and sewerage. Monthly pay-roll disbursements in July for all types of projects of $23,854,000 were $2,492,000 more than in June.

Virtually the same number (3,000) were working on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation in July as were at work in June. A decrease occurred in pay-roll disbursements due to a decrease in the number of man-hours worked during the month. Pay-roll disbursements amounted to $448,000 in July, a drop of $46,000 from June.

A marked increase in employment occurred on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration. The number at work in July was 2,967,000, a gain of 200,000 from June. Pay rolls on these projects amounting to $151,216,000 in July were $5,140,000 more than in June. An increase of 14,000 reported in the number working on Federal projects under The Works Program in July raised the total to 302,000. However, during the month the number of man-hours worked on these Federal projects decreased and pay-roll disbursements, therefore, were lower than in June; July pay rolls amounted to $10,289,000. The number employed on work projects of the National Youth Administration was 214,000, an increase of 12,000 over June. Data on employment and pay rolls for Student Aid in July will not be available until next month.

In the regular services of the Federal Government increases in the number working were reported for the executive, legislative, and military services and a decrease occurred in the judicial service. Of the 868,000 employees in the executive service in July, 116,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 752,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees who are on the Federal pay roll and are engaged on construction projects) were 9 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. Marked increases in employment occurred in the War, Navy, and Post Office Departments. The Department of Agriculture was among those agencies reporting decreases in the number working.

With the beginning of a new enlistment period, the number of workers in the Civilian Conservation Corps increased 22,000 from June, raising the total working to 316,000. Of the total number in

camps in July 278,000 were enrollees, 5,000 reserve officers, 300 nurses, 1,600 educational advisers, and 31,000 supervisory and technical employees. Monthly pay-roll disbursements for all groups of workers totaled $14,266,000.

There were nearly 200,000 workers employed on roads financed wholly from State or local funds in July, an increase of 20,000 from the preceding month and 24,000 more than in July 1937. Of the total number at work in July 31,000 were on new road construction and 169,000 on maintenance. Pay rolls for both types of road work were $12,983,000 in July, an increase of $923,000 over June pay-roll disbursements.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll statistics for June and July is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, July 1938* [1] (*Preliminary Figures*)

Class	Employment		Percentage change	Pay rolls		Percentage change
	July	June		July	June	
Federal services:						
Executive [2]	868,235	[3] 857,824	+1.2	$128,119,436	[3] $128,127,191	−(4)
Judicial	2,013	2,083	−3.4	503,766	515,428	−2.3
Legislative	5,386	5,251	+2.6	1,220,708	1,211,535	+.8
Military	343,700	328,744	+4.5	27,060,719	25,524,486	+6.0
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A. [5]	109,976	116,874	−5.9	9,000,738	9,773,522	−7.9
Financed by R. F. C. [6]	2,997	2,984	+.4	447,594	493,122	−9.2
Financed by regular Federal appropriations	236,415	222,096	+6.4	23,854,162	21,362,606	+11.7
Federal projects under The Works Program	301,923	288,010	+4.8	10,289,040	15,163,038	−32.1
Projects operated by W. P. A.	2,966,832	2,767,125	+7.2	151,215,718	[3] 146,076,176	+3.5
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects	213,972	202,184	+5.8	3,685,148	3,437,299	+7.2
Student Aid	(7)	217,447	.....	(7)	1,538,947	.....
Civilian Conservation Corps	316,227	293,859	+7.6	14,266,482	13,506,062	+5.6

[1] Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.
[2] Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 108,055 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $12,760,042 for July and 103,672 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $13,416,457 for June.
[3] Revised.
[4] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[5] Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds and P. W. A. A. 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Includes 90,040 wage earners and $7,210,860 pay roll for July; 93,141 wage earners and $7,630,319 pay roll for June covering P. W. A. projects financed from E. R. A. A. 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Data for July includes projects financed from P. W. A. A. 1938 funds.
[6] Includes 62 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $5,903 for July and 97 employees and pay-roll disbursements of $8,345 for June on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.
[7] Not available.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR JUNE 1938

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of June, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly data on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 89 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and in virtually all industries the samples are large enough to be entirely representative. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, HOURS, AND EARNINGS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for April, May, and June 1938, are presented in table 1. The April and May figures may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated by the inclusion of late reports and other causes.

Average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As all reporting establishments do not supply man-hour data, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data supplied by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample vary slightly from month to month and therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are not strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, June, May, and April 1938*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923–25=100, and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to October 1936. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings [1]			Average hours worked per week [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938
													Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing industries	75.9	77.4	79.6	67.2	69.2	70.7	$22.30	$22.17	$22.28	34.4	34.4	34.2	64.8	65.0	65.2
Durable goods	65.8	68.2	70.0	58.1	60.5	61.8	24.22	23.76	24.16	34.0	33.9	33.6	71.8	72.1	72.2
Nondurable goods	86.7	87.4	89.8	78.8	80.3	82.0	20.52	20.64	20.52	34.7	34.9	34.7	58.7	58.8	59.0
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	73.1	75.5	76.9	57.4	60.9	61.2	22.17	22.75	22.44	29.6	30.2	29.8	76.3	76.3	76.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	78.8	82.1	84.4	59.0	63.9	65.3	22.21	23.08	22.91	26.5	27.6	27.6	84.1	83.7	83.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	58.8	61.4	60.8	52.3	55.7	51.3	20.16	20.56	19.11	28.3	29.2	27.1	71.1	70.5	70.5
Cast-iron pipe	57.3	57.1	57.2	41.0	40.6	40.6	19.11	19.06	19.03	32.7	32.7	32.5	57.6	57.5	57.6
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	70.7	71.8	74.9	58.0	58.2	60.0	20.51	20.28	20.04	33.6	33.9	33.4	62.8	62.1	61.6
Forgings, iron and steel	40.7	43.4	44.2	28.4	31.0	31.7	21.36	21.82	21.96	28.9	29.6	30.0	73.8	73.9	73.3
Hardware	57.7	59.8	61.1	53.1	53.9	52.4	20.77	20.37	19.42	31.8	31.4	30.0	65.3	64.9	64.6
Plumbers' supplies	80.4	79.7	78.7	57.4	58.7	54.0	22.55	23.28	21.66	34.1	34.7	32.1	66.0	67.0	67.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	56.8	57.0	55.7	46.4	43.1	41.7	23.79	22.01	21.76	34.1	30.9	30.4	69.8	70.9	71.4
Stoves	74.5	76.5	75.3	58.3	61.5	59.3	22.95	23.61	23.09	34.9	35.7	35.0	66.4	66.6	66.2
Structural and ornamental metalwork	56.2	57.5	59.0	50.4	52.7	53.3	25.26	25.77	25.41	34.7	35.8	35.4	72.8	72.2	71.8
Tin cans and other tinware	90.1	88.7	88.1	95.1	93.6	90.9	22.71	23.36	22.82	37.8	37.9	36.9	60.1	61.9	62.3
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	73.2	74.9	76.7	65.2	68.5	69.9	20.71	21.25	21.18	33.4	34.0	34.1	61.7	61.8	61.8
Wirework	103.5	116.0	117.4	85.8	98.3	102.1	20.59	20.99	21.56	31.3	31.6	31.8	65.8	66.5	67.9
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	86.0	89.6	93.2	76.9	81.3	84.2	24.68	24.96	24.94	33.8	34.1	34.0	72.7	72.9	73.0
Agricultural implements	117.2	129.5	136.5	141.0	162.5	168.6	26.84	27.98	27.50	36.7	37.2	36.8	73.4	75.4	74.9
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	121.9	124.4	126.0	115.8	116.4	115.0	28.56	28.16	27.49	35.2	34.8	34.0	81.8	81.2	80.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	75.2	78.0	81.6	67.3	69.1	72.7	24.49	24.27	24.42	32.7	32.3	32.6	74.7	74.9	74.6
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	104.4	108.5	119.3	95.0	101.6	115.0	27.50	28.35	29.50	33.9	34.8	35.9	81.5	81.6	82.5
Foundry and machine-shop products	75.7	79.2	81.7	65.8	70.1	71.5	24.30	24.74	24.47	33.9	34.7	34.4	71.4	71.3	71.2
Machine tools	108.8	116.4	122.1	86.1	96.8	101.3	24.31	25.54	25.51	33.4	34.9	35.0	72.7	73.0	72.9

Engines, turbines, and water wheels	75.7	79.2	81.7	65.8	70.1	71.9	24.31	25.54	25.51	33.4	34.9	35.0	72.7	73.0	72.9
Foundry and machine-shop products	108.8	116.4	122.1	86.1	96.8	101.3									
Machine tools															
Radios and phonographs	92.2	86.3	88.6	75.1	70.1	69.0	22.07	21.64	20.91	36.9	35.9	33.5	59.9	60.7	62.6
Textile machinery and parts	56.1	60.0	60.3	46.8	48.4	48.5	23.00	22.30	22.22	34.0	33.4	33.2	67.9	67.0	67.0
Typewriters and parts	112.3	112.9	111.4	80.2	79.1	78.4	19.56	19.19	19.27	30.0	29.5	29.5	65.1	64.9	65.1
Transportation equipment	**62.3**	**68.2**	**72.0**	**67.7**	**59.9**	**65.4**	**29.64**	**24.95**	**28.94**	**33.4**	**31.9**	**32.7**	**88.9**	**88.5**	**88.5**
Aircraft	715.2	745.1	768.9	655.7	683.7	689.3	29.11	29.14	28.47	39.7	40.4	39.8	73.8	72.9	72.1
Automobiles	61.6	68.7	73.1	53.7	56.1	62.5	29.60	27.71	28.78	32.0	30.1	31.3	**92.7**	**92.0**	**91.9**
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	28.6	32.1	37.1	31.1	**34.4**	**39.6**	26.14	25.67	25.56	**35.0**	**34.6**	**34.2**	**74.6**	**74.2**	**74.8**
Locomotives	30.5	33.0	37.5	19.6	22.3	25.7	25.08	26.38	26.68	32.7	33.8	34.5	76.8	78.0	77.4
Shipbuilding	**92.9**	93.1	90.5	108.9	106.7	105.9	31.61	30.92	31.57	37.3	37.0	36.4	83.3	82.7	84.2
Railroad repair shops	**39.9**	**41.0**	**42.3**	**41.0**	**42.5**	**43.2**	**29.70**	**29.94**	**29.55**	**41.1**	**41.3**	**40.8**	**71.9**	**72.0**	**72.0**
Electric railroad	59.8	60.4	61.3	66.2	67.3	67.7	31.19	31.32	31.18	43.8	44.0	44.0	69.8	69.8	69.5
Steam railroad	38.4	39.6	40.9	39.2	40.8	41.5	29.35	29.62	29.19	40.7	40.9	40.4	72.2	72.3	72.3
Nonferrous metals and their products	**79.6**	**82.5**	**84.9**	**65.5**	**68.7**	**69.3**	**22.20**	**22.55**	**22.15**	**33.5**	**33.8**	**33.0**	**66.0**	**66.3**	**66.6**
Aluminum manufactures	91.5	94.9	97.1	84.8	92.3	92.6	22.75	23.97	23.55	33.4	35.0	33.9	68.2	68.6	69.5
Brass, bronze, and copper products	82.0	83.6	85.0	67.2	70.5	69.0	23.14	23.78	22.95	32.6	33.4	31.9	70.9	71.4	72.0
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices	86.8	90.7	94.0	63.4	68.1	68.4	16.85	17.25	16.70	29.3	28.5	27.2	58.6	60.5	61.3
Jewelry	75.8	73.6	78.1	53.7	50.6	52.2	21.82	21.00	20.58	35.2	33.9	33.9	60.9	61.2	60.7
Lighting equipment	59.6	63.6	66.1	49.6	50.7	50.8	22.10	21.14	19.86	32.1	31.4	29.2	68.8	67.2	68.0
Silverware and plated ware	67.7	68.8	70.4	52.0	54.0	54.3	20.85	21.41	21.00	32.6	33.9	33.4	63.4	63.0	63.0
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	68.4	71.1	73.1	61.0	64.0	64.8	26.14	26.42	25.96	38.4	39.1	38.1	68.2	67.6	68.1
Stamped and enameled ware	96.6	105.3	108.2	84.8	92.8	98.3	21.35	21.45	22.26	33.8	33.9	35.3	**62.7**	**62.9**	63.0
Lumber and allied products	**54.2**	**54.4**	**55.0**	**48.1**	**47.4**	**47.1**	**19.52**	**19.21**	**18.91**	**37.5**	**36.8**	**36.0**	**53.1**	**53.1**	**53.5**
Furniture	64.5	63.8	65.4	49.7	47.8	49.2	18.42	17.96	17.92	35.0	33.2	33.2	53.1	54.6	54.4
Lumber:															
Millwork	45.1	44.2	45.3	42.4	41.6	40.7	21.36	21.39	20.43	39.0	38.9	37.7	54.9	55.1	54.1
Sawmills	41.6	42.4	42.3	38.1	38.2	37.3	19.76	19.42	19.17	38.6	38.2	37.1	52.7	51.8	52.8
Stone, clay, and glass products	**57.2**	**57.4**	**56.9**	**51.3**	**52.6**	**49.4**	**22.77**	**23.12**	**22.00**	**35.7**	**36.0**	**34.6**	**64.1**	**64.0**	**63.8**
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	39.8	39.9	38.7	32.5	32.3	29.2	19.43	19.17	17.89	37.7	36.6	34.6	51.8	51.8	51.6
Cement	63.5	62.2	60.5	65.9	66.4	58.8	26.62	27.44	24.98	38.9	40.2	36.7	68.4	68.3	68.1
Glass	79.5	80.9	81.8	77.1	78.5	77.1	23.48	23.44	22.88	33.4	33.6	33.2	70.5	69.8	69.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	37.5	37.3	35.9	32.7	34.4	31.8	25.19	26.94	26.02	37.1	39.3	37.9	67.8	68.7	69.2
Pottery	68.3	68.6	69.6	54.0	58.0	56.5	20.93	22.38	21.49	34.0	34.9	34.4	63.6	64.2	63.8
Nondurable goods															
Textiles and their products	**80.2**	**82.3**	**86.3**	**60.3**	**63.7**	**68.6**	**15.03**	**15.23**	**15.60**	**31.4**	**31.8**	**31.6**	**47.9**	**47.9**	**49.5**
Fabrics	76.5	76.8	78.1	62.0	62.7	64.0	15.29	15.12	15.16	32.4	32.2	31.9	47.3	47.3	48.0
Carpets and rugs	57.1	63.7	68.4	46.7	46.7	51.8	19.29	17.41	17.96	30.1	27.1	27.8	64.2	64.2	64.7
Cotton goods	80.4	80.9	83.2	64.0	65.9	67.9	12.52	12.70	12.78	31.3	31.1	31.1	40.1	40.8	41.1
Cotton small wares	75.4	77.7	78.1	69.0	71.5	70.6	16.82	16.89	16.69	34.7	34.8	34.6	48.4	48.2	48.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles	97.8	101.7	103.4	76.7	83.1	86.0	18.97	19.74	20.10	34.5	36.0	36.8	54.7	54.4	54.1
Hats, fur-felt	55.4	67.1	80.7	40.8	47.5	53.6	20.05	19.27	18.00	29.6	27.9	23.3	72.0	73.6	72.0
Knit goods	99.7	99.0	103.3	96.1	97.7	102.6	16.68	17.06	17.27	33.1	33.7	33.3	51.4	51.3	52.6
Silk and rayon goods	53.5	59.1	59.7	41.2	46.5	45.8	15.04	15.30	14.90	33.5	34.0	33.8	44.2	44.6	43.8
Woolen and worsted goods	58.3	51.7	46.6	45.4	37.3	34.0	18.02	16.65	16.74	33.7	30.6	28.7	53.7	54.6	58.4
Wearing apparel	86.9	93.2	103.0	54.6	63.0	74.6	14.31	15.52	16.69	29.2	31.0	31.2	48.9	49.1	52.1
Clothing, men's	72.2	76.2	90.6	43.2	47.9	64.5	14.09	14.86	16.77	26.2	27.1	28.5	54.8	55.1	58.1
Clothing, women's	118.7	132.8	143.3	72.0	88.4	99.1	16.25	18.14	18.92	30.2	33.1	32.4	49.3	49.7	52.9
Corsets and allied garments	85.5	86.6	87.2	76.5	84.7	86.4	14.91	16.27	16.47	31.7	34.9	35.4	46.5	46.3	46.1
Men's furnishings	112.4	114.4	116.3	82.1	79.5	83.9	12.74	12.16	12.55	34.3	33.2	33.8	35.1	33.8	34.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, June, May, and April 1938*—Contd.

MANUFACTURING—Continued

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100, and are adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to October 1936.] Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938	June 1938	May 1938	April 1938
***Nondurable goods*—Continued**															
Textiles and their products—Continued.															
Wearing apparel—Continued.													*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Millinery	42.9	52.1	60.8	28.0	35.0	46.6	$18.35	$19.72	$22.42	28.4	31.9	35.4	63.0	58.2	63.7
Shirts and collars	106.8	105.6	108.4	80.2	83.5	85.5	11.22	11.87	11.78	30.8	32.1	31.2	37.8	37.7	38.0
Leather and its manufactures	78.5	82.5	88.0	55.1	58.3	67.1	16.30	16.66	17.84	31.7	31.4	34.1	51.4	52.2	51.3
Boots and shoes	80.8	85.8	92.7	49.6	54.1	65.7	14.71	15.39	16.90	30.4	30.4	33.8	48.6	49.8	48.7
Leather	73.9	74.0	74.6	76.1	74.7	74.4	23.11	22.57	22.32	36.8	35.8	35.1	63.0	63.3	63.6
Food and kindred products	107.3	101.8	101.0	111.1	107.0	104.1	24.98	25.40	24.89	40.7	40.7	40.1	61.4	62.4	62.1
Baking	132.1	129.9	129.9	130.4	128.1	126.3	25.76	25.84	25.36	42.3	42.3	41.8	61.3	61.5	61.0
Beverages	212.7	204.3	198.4	245.0	233.1	223.0	33.51	33.30	32.83	40.3	39.7	39.1	84.1	84.4	84.7
Butter	90.2	87.5	85.0	75.1	73.5	68.4	23.18	23.37	22.31	48.1	48.5	47.2	48.0	48.2	47.7
Canning and preserving	110.6	82.9	80.5	107.1	85.4	80.4	15.98	17.05	16.53	34.9	34.5	34.6	46.7	50.5	49.4
Confectionery	67.5	66.9	71.6	67.2	63.6	66.0	18.21	17.22	16.79	37.4	35.7	35.1	49.0	48.7	47.9
Flour	72.8	71.5	71.8	74.4	71.3	70.9	26.66	26.00	25.76	44.5	43.6	42.8	59.6	59.1	59.7
Ice cream	83.2	71.4	69.9	77.6	74.0	66.6	28.42	28.43	29.06	47.6	47.6	46.9	60.1	59.6	61.7
Slaughtering and meat packing	84.8	83.3	83.0	95.6	94.6	92.0	28.19	28.38	27.73	40.7	41.2	40.1	69.0	68.8	69.1
Sugar, beet	42.1	38.6	38.7	49.8	46.7	45.6	27.89	28.52	27.74	40.8	39.4	39.9	70.8	75.2	72.9
Sugar refining, cane	75.9	76.4	66.9	72.1	73.1	65.0	24.22	24.67	25.05	39.7	39.9	41.2	61.0	61.9	60.9
Tobacco manufactures	60.3	59.4	59.1	55.2	52.5	49.3	16.91	16.31	15.54	36.9	35.2	33.0	45.7	46.2	46.8
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	55.1	55.7	56.4	68.2	63.8	66.1	18.62	17.16	17.57	36.6	34.3	35.2	50.9	50.4	50.3
Cigars and cigarettes	60.9	59.8	59.3	53.6	51.1	47.3	16.57	16.13	15.10	37.0	35.3	32.7	45.1	45.8	46.1
Paper and printing	97.2	98.5	99.7	91.4	93.8	94.6	27.04	27.41	27.30	36.4	37.0	36.9	77.4	76.9	76.5
Boxes, paper	88.6	89.0	89.8	86.3	87.5	87.2	19.89	20.33	20.10	36.7	36.9	36.8	55.3	55.5	55.0
Paper and pulp	104.5	105.4	106.9	96.4	98.7	99.9	22.89	23.20	23.16	36.7	37.3	37.4	62.5	62.3	62.0
Printing and publishing															
Book and job	87.8	90.2	91.7	80.3	83.7	84.8	29.02	29.40	29.27	36.5	37.3	37.1	80.6	79.9	79.9
Newspapers and periodicals	102.2	103.1	103.9	99.8	101.4	102.0	36.81	36.92	36.88	35.8	36.3	36.4	99.4	98.4	97.3
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining	103.9	107.2	110.5	114.8	117.7	116.3	28.80	28.50	27.32	37.3	37.7	37.0	77.0	75.7	74.2
Petroleum refining	117.6	117.4	117.8	136.6	138.4	133.8	35.26	35.78	34.47	36.3	37.0	35.8	97.8	97.5	96.8
Other than petroleum refining	100.6	104.8	108.7	108.0	111.3	110.9	25.63	25.17	24.17	37.7	37.9	37.5	68.5	67.2	65.0
Chemicals	107.7	107.6	109.4	117.2	115.9	116.6	29.90	29.63	29.42	37.7	37.6	37.2	79.3	78.9	79.5
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	47.9	57.3	74.9	42.9	51.2	64.9	12.87	12.82	12.29	48.3	49.3	49.0	26.1	25.4	25.3
Druggists' preparations	103.7	104.0	104.3	114.8	114.6	114.8	24.03	23.89	23.89	37.7	37.6	37.7	60.0	59.8	60.0

Chemicals	107.7	107.6	109.4	117.2	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal	47.9	57.3	74.9	42.9	51.2	64.9	12.87	12.82	12.29	48.3	49.3	49.0	26.1	25.4	25.3
Druggists' preparations	103.7	104.0	104.3	114.8	114.6	114.8	24.03	23.89	23.89	37.7	37.6	37.7	60.0	59.8	60.0
Explosives	84.9	84.8	86.0	89.3	85.9	86.5	29.30	28.55	28.32	36.4	34.9	34.9	81.5	81.7	81.1
Fertilizers	62.3	90.4	123.0	66.3	95.7	121.1	17.33	17.46	16.24	38.0	39.0	40.6	45.8	44.9	40.1
Paints and varnishes	116.7	118.7	118.0	118.2	122.2	116.7	27.79	28.17	27.11	39.9	40.7	39.4	69.7	69.3	68.9
Rayon and allied products	284.2	304.0	303.1	258.1	275.0	260.3	22.42	22.34	21.21	34.6	34.6	32.6	64.8	64.6	65.0
Soap	91.7	91.7	93.8	107.1	107.2	108.5	28.81	28.84	28.54	38.8	38.7	38.4	74.5	74.7	74.4
Rubber products	**70.6**	**71.5**	**72.7**	**63.2**	**63.1**	**61.7**	**23.75**	**23.39**	**22.47**	**31.3**	**31.1**	**30.1**	**77.0**	**76.9**	**76.7**
Rubber boots and shoes	53.5	52.4	53.9	41.0	39.7	38.1	19.18	18.98	17.72	32.1	31.4	29.3	59.8	60.5	60.5
Rubber tires and inner tubes	62.2	62.3	63.0	58.4	57.0	54.6	27.35	26.67	25.21	28.7	27.9	26.6	94.5	95.0	94.6
Rubber goods, other	102.7	106.6	108.9	92.7	96.8	98.6	20.49	20.72	20.70	34.5	35.1	35.0	59.7	59.4	59.3

NONMANUFACTURING

(Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100)

Coal mining:															
Anthracite [2]	56.0	52.8	57.0	49.7	38.3	39.0	$28.94	$23.61	$22.26	30.6	25.1	23.5	93.2	92.3	92.7
Bituminous [2]	80.1	82.2	85.8	57.1	55.5	56.3	18.93	17.82	17.39	21.0	19.7	19.8	87.9	88.4	86.8
Metalliferous mining	55.8	58.8	61.6	46.0	51.2	53.3	25.49	27.12	27.01	37.6	40.1	40.0	67.9	67.8	67.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	43.6	43.7	41.7	37.3	38.3	33.9	21.61	22.11	20.55	40.4	41.0	37.8	53.5	53.9	54.2
Crude-petroleum producing	72.9	73.2	73.8	67.6	66.7	68.0	34.48	33.64	34.28	40.4	39.4	39.9	83.9	85.2	84.3
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph [5]	74.8	75.0	74.8	90.9	91.3	91.6	31.08	31.14	31.30	38.4	38.4	39.4	85.5	85.6	84.2
Electric light and power and manufactured gas [3]	92.2	91.7	91.8	98.7	97.4	97.6	33.72	33.38	33.34	40.2	39.2	40.1	84.1	85.2	83.4
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [3]	70.4	70.6	71.1	69.6	71.2	70.0	32.39	32.96	32.21	45.0	45.9	45.1	70.9	70.7	70.4
Trade:															
Wholesale [3]	87.2	87.3	88.5	73.6	75.1	74.6	29.58	30.30	29.59	42.5	42.8	42.6	70.1	71.3	69.8
Retail [3]	83.6	83.8	88.2	69.5	70.0	72.2	21.46	21.45	21.09	42.7	42.7	42.6	55.0	54.5	54.5
General merchandising [3]	91.9	92.4	101.0	84.3	84.4	89.4	18.22	18.15	17.66	39.3	39.3	39.5	49.4	48.9	47.6
Other than general merchandising [3]	81.4	81.5	84.9	66.4	67.0	68.6	24.11	24.18	23.98	43.7	43.7	43.6	56.6	56.2	56.6
Hotels (year round) [2 3 5]	92.1	93.7	93.5	79.4	80.5	80.5	14.89	14.80	14.87	46.9	46.6	46.9	31.2	31.5	31.6
Laundries [2]	96.6	96.2	95.4	81.8	80.9	80.6	17.26	17.10	17.20	42.4	42.0	42.1	41.1	41.1	41.1
Dyeing and cleaning [2]	110.9	109.9	111.8	83.3	80.7	87.2	20.98	20.30	21.58	43.4	42.1	44.1	48.4	48.4	49.1
Brokerage [3 6]	−1.4	−2.0	−2.0	−1.6	−4.9	−3.4	33.87	33.75	34.47	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Insurance [3 6]	+.4	+.2	+.2	+.9	−.1	−.3	36.30	36.02	36.75	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Building construction [6]	+.2	+3.4	+5.5	+1.1	+5.8	+7.3	29.43	29.07	28.66	32.6	32.3	31.4	90.4	90.3	90.9

[1] Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

[2] Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet "Employment and Pay Rolls."

[3] Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1938, except for January figures in March 1938 issue, as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

[4] Not available.

[5] Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[6] Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in table 2 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and of 13 nonmanufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months, from June 1937 to June 1938, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to June 1938.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are computed from returns supplied by representative establishments in 89 manufacturing industries and cover wage earners only. The base used in computing these indexes is the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100. In June 1938 reports were received from 25,714 manufacturing establishments employing 3,734,235 workers, whose weekly earnings were $83,277,915. The employment reports received from these establishments cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 89 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and building construction cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, hotels, brokerage, and insurance relate to all employees, except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

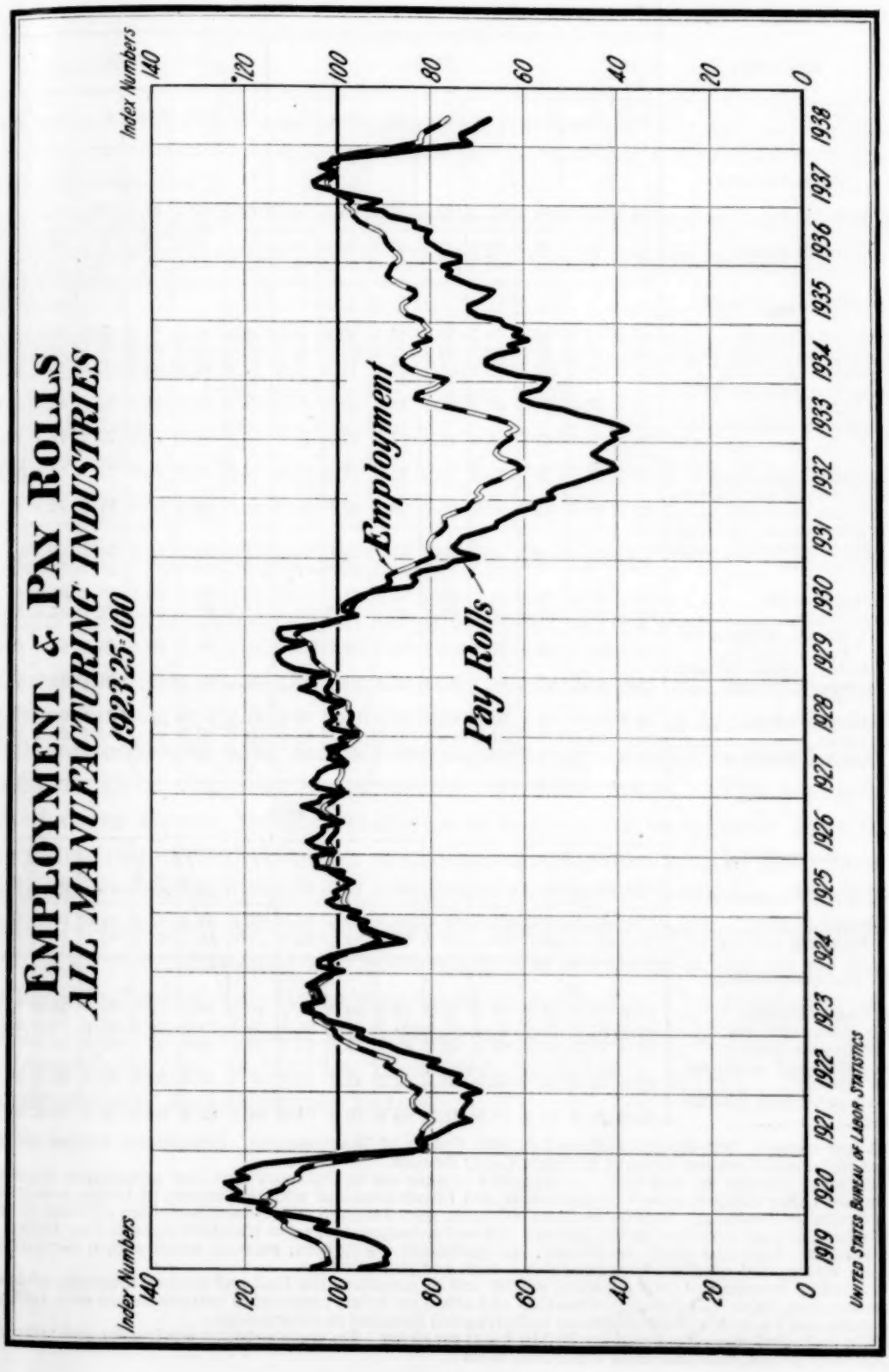

EMPLOYMENT & PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Employment
Pay Rolls
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing [1] and Nonmanufacturing [2] Industries, June 1937 to June 1938, Inclusive*

Industry	Avg. for year 1937	1937							1938					
		June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Employment														
Manufacturing														
All industries	99.3	101.1	101.4	102.3	102.1	100.5	94.7	88.6	82.2	82.3	81.7	79.6	77.4	75.9
Durable goods [3]	95.5	98.8	98.9	98.1	97.3	97.6	92.4	84.3	75.1	73.3	72.4	70.0	68.2	65.8
Nondurable goods [4]	103.4	103.5	104.1	106.9	107.3	103.6	97.3	93.3	89.9	92.1	91.7	89.8	87.4	86.7
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining	60.2	61.6	54.3	49.7	58.1	61.5	60.9	61.4	59.6	60.0	59.3	57.0	52.8	56.0
Bituminous-coal mining	99.3	96.2	93.7	97.4	99.4	102.4	101.4	99.4	96.9	95.5	93.2	85.8	82.2	80.1
Metalliferous mining	76.8	79.5	82.0	83.4	84.1	82.9	75.4	70.4	67.4	63.6	62.3	61.6	58.8	55.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	51.4	55.4	55.5	54.9	54.7	53.3	49.9	43.9	38.2	37.8	38.9	41.7	43.7	43.6
Crude-petroleum producing	76.5	78.5	78.5	79.3	78.2	77.5	77.2	76.5	75.3	74.2	73.6	73.8	73.2	72.9
Telephone and telegraph	77.8	78.5	79.7	79.8	79.8	79.6	78.9	78.0	77.8	75.7	74.9	74.8	75.0	74.8
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas	95.6	96.3	97.5	98.3	98.6	98.5	97.3	96.1	93.8	92.6	92.0	91.8	91.7	92.2
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [5]	73.1	73.3	73.4	73.4	73.7	73.4	73.2	72.8	72.3	71.2	70.8	71.1	70.6	70.4
Wholesale trade	92.0	90.3	90.6	91.8	93.0	94.0	93.5	93.3	91.0	90.4	89.1	88.5	87.3	87.2
Retail trade	89.8	90.5	87.6	86.2	90.7	92.1	91.7	100.4	84.1	82.4	83.0	88.7	83.8	83.6
General merchandising	104.3	102.9	95.9	93.8	103.7	108.1	109.8	145.9	91.5	88.8	90.5	101.0	92.4	91.9
Other than general merchandising	85.9	87.2	85.4	84.2	87.3	87.9	86.9	88.5	82.1	80.7	81.0	84.9	81.5	81.4
Year-round hotels	94.9	94.4	93.6	94.3	95.7	96.9	96.6	94.9	94.3	94.5	93.4	93.5	93.7	92.1
Laundries	100.6	103.9	105.8	104.7	104.1	99.9	97.8	97.0	96.8	95.7	94.8	95.4	96.2	96.6
Dyeing and cleaning	107.5	118.5	111.0	110.3	112.8	110.5	103.5	99.2	96.8	95.6	98.5	111.8	109.9	110.9
Pay rolls														
Manufacturing														
All industries	98.0	102.9	100.4	103.8	100.1	100.1	89.5	80.9	71.7	73.2	73.3	70.7	69.2	67.2
Durable goods [3]	97.5	104.6	100.7	104.0	99.4	101.7	89.9	77.0	63.9	63.7	63.8	61.8	60.5	58.1
Nondurable goods [4]	98.5	100.8	100.0	103.5	100.9	98.2	89.0	85.8	81.6	85.1	85.3	82.0	80.3	78.8
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining	46.9	55.3	38.2	29.6	34.2	55.4	49.0	51.3	46.5	46.1	47.3	39.0	38.3	49.7
Bituminous-coal mining	88.5	83.3	77.7	86.3	90.9	100.7	91.1	95.1	70.4	74.0	68.4	56.3	55.5	57.1
Metalliferous mining	74.0	77.7	77.8	83.0	82.2	81.7	71.6	65.1	59.1	55.8	56.3	53.3	51.2	46.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	45.4	52.6	50.8	53.2	50.1	49.3	41.7	33.4	27.7	28.6	30.2	33.9	38.3	37.3
Crude-petroleum producing	68.2	70.4	70.5	70.8	71.2	69.9	70.2	69.8	68.2	69.6	68.0	68.0	66.8	67.6

[1] 3-year average, 1923–25=100—adjusted to 1933 Census of Manufactures. Comparable indexes are in April 1937 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.

[2] 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes are in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review, except for anthracite and bituminous-coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning. Indexes for these industries from January 1929 forward have been adjusted to the 1935 census and are presented in the January 1938 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls.

[3] Includes: Iron and steel; machinery; transportation equipment; railroad repair shops; nonferrous metals; lumber and allied products; and stone, clay, and glass products.

[4] Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

[5] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing. See transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries, June 1937 to June 1938, Inclusive*—Continued

Industry	Pay rolls												
	Avg. for year 1937	1937							1938				
		June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June
Nonmanufacturing—Con.														
Telephone and telegraph	89.6	88.6	92.1	92.1	92.3	94.9	91.4	94.7	93.7	89.9	92.6	91.6	91.3	90.9
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas	99.6	100.4	102.2	102.6	104.0	105.3	103.8	102.4	98.9	98.5	98.6	97.6	97.4	98.7
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance [1]	70.6	71.1	70.8	73.1	71.6	71.4	71.8	71.9	70.6	70.2	69.9	70.0	71.2	69.6
Wholesale trade	76.6	76.3	76.9	79.0	78.3	79.3	78.3	77.8	75.4	75.3	74.7	74.6	75.1	73.6
Retail trade	73.1	74.4	72.8	72.3	74.4	75.9	75.3	80.6	70.1	68.4	68.6	72.2	70.0	69.5
General merchandising	92.5	92.5	87.3	85.7	92.4	96.2	97.1	123.3	84.6	81.5	82.2	89.4	84.4	84.3
Other than general merchandising	69.1	70.6	69.8	69.5	70.7	71.7	70.8	71.8	67.1	65.7	65.8	68.6	67.0	66.4
Year-round hotels	80.6	80.1	79.4	80.5	82.4	84.1	84.3	82.6	81.6	83.6	80.9	80.5	80.5	79.4
Laundries	83.0	87.5	89.0	88.0	86.4	83.4	81.1	81.1	80.1	79.1	78.6	80.6	80.9	81.8
Dyeing and cleaning	77.6	92.2	79.5	81.3	85.7	83.6	73.7	68.6	65.5	65.2	68.2	87.2	80.7	83.3

[1] Not including electric-railroad car building and repairing. See transportation equipment and railroad repair-shop groups, manufacturing industries, table 1.

TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in May and June 1938, is shown in table 3 for all groups combined, and for all manufacturing industries combined, based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 89 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 (except building construction), and seasonal hotels.

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in May and June 1938, by Geographic Divisions and by States*

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number employees, June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938	Amount of pay roll (1 week) June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938	Number of establishments	Number employees, June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938	Amount of pay roll (1 week) June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
New England	13,788	762,616	−2.7	16,560,202	−2.6	3,653	502,796	−3.9	10,049,658	−4.2
Maine	832	50,870	−1.2	944,704	−6.3	301	40,180	−2.4	693,365	−9.1
New Hampshire	630	32,518	−3.6	609,864	−7.0	202	25,487	−5.0	444,755	−10.0
Vermont	479	15,487	+1.1	327,937	−.2	154	8,913	+3.7	177,823	+1.9
Massachusetts	[1] *8,145*	*414,125*	*−3.1*	*9,464,395*	*−2.3*	*1,809*	*227,241*	*−5.2*	*4,759,316*	*−4.3*
Rhode Island	1,255	77,627	−1.3	1,551,812	−.1	429	58,937	−1.4	1,086,691	−.3
Connecticut	2,447	171,989	−3.1	3,661,490	−2.8	758	142,038	−3.3	2,887,708	−3.4
Middle Atlantic	32,516	1,906,673	−1.3	49,034,231	−.5	5,542	1,026,337	−1.7	24,413,167	−2.3
New York	20,574	859,826	−1.8	23,824,330	−1.2	[2] *2,389*	*376,397*	*−1.7*	*9,672,879*	*−1.2*
New Jersey	4,389	322,605	−.3	8,075,847	−.6	[3] *851*	*226,211*	*+.5*	*5,556,546*	*−.6*
Pennsylvania	7,553	724,242	−1.2	17,134,054	+.5	*2,322*	*423,729*	[4] *−2.0*	*9,183,742*	[4] *−4.3*
East North Central	25,643	1,835,485	−2.6	45,187,381	−2.7	8,670	1,314,489	−3.4	32,044,502	−3.8
Ohio	7,573	503,797	−2.1	11,841,278	−2.3	2,561	355,929	−2.5	8,266,736	−3.3
Indiana	*2,961*	*219,045*	*−3.1*	*4,928,441*	*−4.4*	*1,042*	*168,326*	*−4.0*	*3,808,968*	*−5.8*
Illinois	[5] *6,715*	*538,519*	*−1.6*	*13,568,283*	*−2.3*	*2,481*	*354,689*	*−2.3*	*8,644,263*	*−3.1*
Michigan	4,015	348,687	−5.7	9,472,313	−4.2	*1,045*	*281,216*	*−6.9*	*7,684,355*	*−4.9*
Wisconsin	[6] *4,379*	*225,437*	−.4	*5,377,066*	−.4	[7] *1,541*	*154,329*	[4] *+.9*	*3,640,180*	[4] *−.5*
West North Central	12,433	411,297	−.8	9,771,876	−.8	2,631	200,582	−1.1	4,787,625	−.2
Minnesota	2,386	97,272	+.1	2,471,140	−.6	608	45,423	−1.0	1,191,235	−.7
Iowa	2,076	58,556	−.8	1,344,922	−.8	422	31,069	−.5	738,039	−.6
Missouri	3,008	157,579	−2.0	3,659,073	−.9	890	85,483	−2.4	1,855,183	+.2
North Dakota	543	4,877	+2.0	117,394	−.7	55	708	+6.5	18,964	+1.4
South Dakota	449	7,770	+.9	200,965	+1.6	39	2,228	+3.1	57,174	+6.5
Nebraska	1,393	29,716	+.4	679,231	+.3	162	10,220	+3.8	257,142	+3.8
Kansas	[8] *2,578*	*55,527*	[9] *+1.8*	*1,299,151*	[4] *−1.7*	*455*	*25,451*	*−.3*	*669,888*	*−1.8*
South Atlantic	11,366	784,021	−1.1	14,480,142	−1.1	2,981	517,670	−.9	8,691,095	−2.0
Delaware	211	13,170	+.5	298,157	−1.2	*84*	*9,642*	*+.4*	*215,307*	*−1.0*
Maryland	*1,614*	*124,133*	*−1.7*	*2,799,794*	*−2.0*	*621*	*84,163*	[4] *−2.5*	*1,821,406*	[4] *−2.6*
District of Columbia	1,122	39,774	−1.9	1,048,044	−.6	40	3,332	−.1	111,838	+.2
Virginia	2,184	111,261	+.5	2,047,278	+.4	480	73,232	−.7	1,325,691	+.5
West Virginia	1,267	126,963	−3.8	2,750,191	−1.0	272	45,181	−7.3	978,578	−11.4
North Carolina	1,567	150,597	+1.0	2,276,158	−([10])	661	137,096	+1.3	2,043,730	+.4
South Carolina	749	69,864	+2.3	934,186	−.4	214	62,450	+2.5	798,246	−.4
Georgia	1,486	105,459	−1.5	1,568,694	+.1	397	80,571	−1.7	1,054,764	+1.3
Florida	1,166	42,800	−6.2	757,640	−8.8	212	22,003	−1.9	341,535	−5.5
East South Central	5,186	273,963	−1.4	4,676,610	−3.5	1,096	159,010	−1.9	2,591,906	−3.2
Kentucky	1,419	80,236	+1.8	1,491,741	−1.6	300	30,577	+2.0	593,695	+.3
Tennessee	1,449	95,521	−.7	1,607,003	−1.3	388	67,295	−.5	1,092,284	−.9
Alabama	1,695	80,659	−4.8	1,312,492	−8.1	306	50,545	−5.1	762,876	−8.5
Mississippi	623	17,547	−2.6	265,374	−3.8	102	10,593	−5.1	143,051	−5.4
West South Central	6,372	228,362	−.3	5,153,476	−1.5	1,387	109,524	−.1	2,389,944	−2.0
Arkansas	[11] *1,084*	*29,342*	+([10])	*511,251*	*+2.9*	*302*	*17,816*	*+.6*	*290,945*	*+4.0*
Louisiana	1,073	54,081	−1.6	1,075,681	−2.4	259	30,400	−2.1	560,515	−2.7
Oklahoma	1,424	43,173	−.1	1,078,481	−1.2	147	11,640	+1.2	280,574	−2.3
Texas	*2,791*	*101,766*	*+.2*	*2,488,063*	*−2.2*	*679*	*49,668*	*+.6*	*1,257,910*	*−2.9*

[1] Includes banks and trust companies, construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment, amusement and recreation, professional services, and trucking and handling.
[2] Includes laundering and cleaning, and water, light, and power.
[3] Includes laundries.
[4] Weighted percentage change.
[5] Includes automobile and miscellaneous services, restaurants, and building and contracting.
[6] Includes construction, but not public works.
[7] Does not include logging.
[8] Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.
[9] Weighted percentage change including hired farm labor.
[10] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[11] Includes automobile dealers and garages, and sand, gravel, and building stone.

TABLE 3.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in May and June 1938, by Geographic Divisions and by States*—Continued

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number employees, June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938	Amount of pay roll (1 week) June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938	Number of establishments	Number employees, June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938	Amount of pay roll (1 week) June 1938	Percentage change from May 1938
				Dollars					*Dollars*	
Mountain	4,262	114,961	−1.5	2,899,394	−2.4	589	32,029	−0.1	821,641	+0.3
Montana	653	13,912	−11.9	396,469	−14.8	89	4,166	−6.9	113,902	−4.4
Idaho	487	10,126	+4.3	268,465	+4.7	61	3,084	+11.5	83,502	+18.7
Wyoming	322	8,527	+1.3	227,049	+.8	39	1,593	+2.0	52,715	−4.0
Colorado	1,254	39,450	−.8	961,211	+1.4	190	11,724	−3.8	301,851	+.1
New Mexico	293	6,370	−.1	134,921	+2.3	32	980	+8.2	18,933	+11.6
Arizona	458	13,915	−.6	363,060	−4.3	45	2,898	−.9	70,293	−4.1
Utah	618	19,721	+.2	460,016	−3.4	117	6,918	+6.5	160,447	−.3
Nevada	177	2,940	−[19]	88,203	−.3	16	666	−10.4	19,998	−7.7
Pacific	10,177	429,564	+1.8	12,090,647	+1.0	2,593	222,780	+1.9	5,996,899	+1.3
Washington	2,962	89,502	+1.9	2,319,077	+1.6	560	47,621	+1.7	1,204,342	+2.7
Oregon	1,418	48,327	+5.1	1,243,019	+3.0	307	27,516	+8.1	682,100	+6.2
California	[11] *5,797*	*291,735*	*+1.2*	*8,528,551*	*+.5*	*1,726*	*147,643*	*+.9*	*4,110,457*	*+.1*

[19] Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
[11] Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in May and June 1938 is made in table 4 for 13 metropolitan areas which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas, but having a population of 100,000 or over, are not included, as data concerning them are tabulated separately and are available on request.

Footnotes to the table indicate which cities are excluded. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in May and June 1938, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll, June	Percentage change from May	Amount of pay roll (1 week), June	Percentage change from May
New York [1]	14,605	572,479	−2.5	$15,365,590	−2.0
Chicago [1]	4,497	413,646	−1.5	11,079,993	−2.9
Philadelphia [2]	2,007	176,039	−.8	4,648,192	−.5
Detroit	1,779	209,067	−7.5	6,134,430	−5.5
Los Angeles [4]	3,084	151,240	+.1	4,400,911	−.9
Cleveland	1,791	113,970	−2.1	2,776,913	−4.5
St. Louis	1,565	119,726	−1.2	2,840,718	−.6
Baltimore	1,171	94,315	−2.7	2,144,450	−1.7
Boston [5]	1,516	98,938	−1.1	2,668,931	−.9
Pittsburgh	1,126	155,031	−4.9	3,710,063	−6.2
San Francisco [6]	1,724	83,712	+1.2	2,487,251	+.7
Buffalo	881	53,605	−3.3	1,402,767	−2.0
Milwaukee	1,160	92,799	−1.4	2,376,769	−.3

[1] Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J.; nor Yonkers, N. Y.
[2] Does not include Gary, Ind.
[3] Does not include Camden, N. J.
[4] Does not include Long Beach, Calif.
[5] Figures relate to city of Boston only.
[6] Does not include Oakland, Calif.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, JULY 1938 [1]

THE value of permits issued for new residential buildings in July 1938 in 2,081 identical cities, for which reports were received in June and July, was 79.1 percent higher than in June. There was an increase of 7.6 percent in the value of new nonresidential buildings, but a decrease of 4.7 percent in the value of additions, alterations, and repairs.

Compared with July 1937, data for 1,590 identical cities showed a gain of 128.8 percent in new residential construction in July 1938. There was an increase of 2.5 percent in the value of new nonresidential buildings and a decrease of 20.6 percent in the value of additions, alterations, and repairs. Total permit valuations showed a gain of 48.6 percent from July 1937.

Comparison of July 1938 with June 1938

A summary of building construction in 2,081 identical cities in June and July 1938 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,081 Identical Cities, June and July 1938*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	July 1938	June 1938	Percentage change	July 1938	June 1938	Percentage change
All construction	56,379	61,009	−7.6	$198,198,188	$140,762,384	+40.8
New residential	13,859	14,618	−5.2	125,656,532	70,160,809	+79.1
New nonresidential	9,409	10,455	−10.0	46,010,069	42,772,991	+7.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs	33,111	35,936	−7.9	26,531,587	27,828,584	−4.7

Comparison of July 1938 with July 1937

Table 2 presents a summary of the number of buildings and value of permits issued in 1,590 identical cities in July 1938 compared with the corresponding month of 1937.

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, July 1938," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 1,590 Identical Cities, July 1937 and July 1938*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	July 1938	July 1937	Percentage change	July 1938	July 1937	Percentage change
All construction	55,323	56,666	−2.4	$195,936,421	$131,827,166	+48.6
New residential	13,440	10,698	+25.6	124,022,941	54,209,447	+128.8
New nonresidential	9,169	9,883	−7.2	45,602,194	44,481,726	+2.5
Additions, alterations, and repairs	32,714	36,085	−9.3	26,311,286	33,135,993	−20.6

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 2,081 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 3 for July compared with June 1938.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,081 Identical Cities, June and July 1938*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	July 1938	June 1938	Percentage change	July 1938	June 1938	Percentage change
All types	$124,124,503	$68,836,754	+80.3	23,184	18,166	+27.6
1-family	52,485,704	55,185,416	−4.9	12,975	13,614	−4.7
2-family [1]	2,592,456	3,110,770	−16.7	893	1,130	−21.0
Multifamily [2]	69,046,343	10,540,568	+555.1	9,316	3,422	+172.2

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Table 4 shows a comparison of the value of permits issued for housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings, in 1,590 identical cities with a population of 2,500 and over, in July 1938 with the corresponding month of the preceding year.

TABLE 4.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 1,590 Identical Cities, July 1937 and July 1938*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	July 1938	July 1937	Percentage change	July 1938	July 1937	Percentage change
All types	$122,503,812	$53,547,097	+128.8	22,750	12,960	+75.5
1-family	50,927,798	42,669,191	+19.4	12,571	9,987	+25.9
2-family [1]	2,545,671	2,228,638	+14.2	871	805	+8.2
Multifamily [2]	69,030,343	8,649,268	+698.1	9,308	2,168	+329.3

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, July 1938

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in July 1938 compared with June 1938 and July 1937, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Size of City, July 1938*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, July 1938	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, July 1938	Percentage change from—	
			June 1938	July 1937		June 1938	July 1937
Total, all reporting cities	2,081	$198,198,188	+40.8	[1] +48.6	$125,656,532	+79.1	[1] +128.8
500,000 and over	14	104,926,589	+104.3	+139.5	79,720,862	+250.4	+391.3
100,000 and under 500,000	79	31,553,774	+11.9	+.8	14,146,589	+6.9	+31.3
50,000 and under 100,000	95	14,693,293	+18.9	+20.7	5,930,326	+4.0	+34.1
25,000 and under 50,000	156	12,245,109	+5.1	−2.7	6,241,836	+6.7	+28.4
10,000 and under 25,000	427	19,479,064	+.9	+15.4	9,617,031	−11.8	+.2
5,000 and under 10,000	365	7,942,506	−5.2	−18.4	5,102,676	−2.9	−3.3
2,500 and under 5,000	454	5,096,086	−27.9	−4.4	3,263,621	−30.3	+7.0
1,000 and under 2,500	491	2,261,767	−7.7	.....	1,633,591	−8.2	.....

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, July 1938	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, July 1938	Percentage change from—		
		June 1938	July 1937		June 1938	July 1937	
Total, all reporting cities	$46,010,069	+7.6	[1] +2.5	$26,531,587	−4.7	[1] −20.6	59,869,061
500,000 and over	17,240,404	−5.0	+16.1	7,965,323	−23.8	−37.5	21,449,853
100,000 and under 500,000	10,529,821	+22.4	−13.7	6,877,364	+8.1	−17.3	15,017,880
50,000 and under 100,000	5,776,583	+45.4	+23.1	2,986,384	+11.2	−2.3	6,340,079
25,000 and under 50,000	3,223,887	+29.3	−26.3	2,779,386	−15.8	−17.1	5,504,851
10,000 and under 25,000	6,058,048	+8.5	+54.2	3,803,985	+35.0	+13.2	6,561,562
5,000 and under 10,000	1,612,610	−15.4	−43.9	1,227,220	+.8	−22.6	2,587,426
2,500 and under 5,000	1,160,841	−31.2	−25.7	671,624	−3.6	−6.4	1,621,842
1,000 and under 2,500	407,875	+9.2	.....	220,301	−25.8	.....	785,568

[1] Based on 1,590 reporting cities.

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,081 identical cities reporting for June and July 1938, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,081 Identical Cities, by Size of City, June and July 1938*

Size of city	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	July 1938	June 1938	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
				July 1938	June 1938	July 1938	June 1938	July 1938	June 1938	July 1938	June 1938
Total, all reporting cities	$124,124,503	$68,836,754	+80.3	23,184	18,166	12,975	13,614	893	1,130	9,316	3,422
500,000 and over	79,494,473	22,676,915	+250.6	11,027	5,752	3,371	3,431	239	275	7,417	2,046
100,000 and under 500,000	14,092,699	13,013,204	+8.3	3,865	3,475	2,550	2,818	260	314	1,055	343
50,000 and under 100,000	5,576,326	5,577,818	(3)	1,594	1,485	1,181	1,194	97	176	316	115
25,000 and under 50,000	5,666,436	5,801,384	−2.3	1,503	1,573	1,343	1,341	90	108	70	124
10,000 and under 25,000	9,538,631	10,724,009	−11.1	2,504	2,969	2,175	2,322	88	128	241	519
5,000 and under 10,000	4,885,626	5,143,324	−5.0	1,297	1,380	1,087	1,156	46	48	164	176
2,500 and under 5,000	3,249,621	4,129,734	−21.3	960	1,031	864	893	51	49	45	89
1,000 and under 2,500	1,620,691	1,770,366	−8.5	434	501	404	459	22	32	8	10

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.
[3] Decrease, less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Construction During First 7 Months, 1937 and 1938

Cumulative totals for the first 7 months of 1938 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 7. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 2,500 and over.

TABLE 7.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, First 7 Months of 1937 and of 1938, by Class of Construction*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 7 months of—		
	1938	1937	Percentage change
All construction	$978,182,908	$1,009,243,883	−3.1
New residential	499,477,604	475,853,371	+5.0
New nonresidential	293,986,844	310,098,082	−5.2
Additions, alterations, and repairs	187,718,460	223,292,430	−17.3

Table 8 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 2,500 and over, for the first 7 months of 1937 and 1938.

TABLE 8.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for, First 7 Months of 1937 and of 1938, by Type of Dwelling*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	First 7 months of—		Percentage change	First 7 months of—		Percentage change
	1938	1937		1938	1937	
All types	$494,676,658	$469,385,453	+5.4	126,478	116,197	+8.8
1-family	294,643,060	339,404,067	−13.2	74,194	76,401	−2.9
2-family [1]	18,685,738	19,926,010	−6.2	7,090	7,061	+0.4
Multifamily [2]	181,347,860	110,055,376	+64.8	45,194	32,735	+38.1

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued June and July 1938 is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,081 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over. The data for July 1937 and 1938 are based on reports from 1,590 identical cities with a population of 2,500 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. In addition to permits issued for private and municipal building construction, the statistics include the value of contracts for Federal and State buildings in the cities covered by the report. Data concerning public buildings are collected by the Bureau from the various Federal and State agencies having the power to award contracts for building construction. In July 1938 the value of these public buildings amounted to $19,887,000; in June 1938, to $8,046,000; and in July 1937, to $6,842,000.

Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during July and June 1938 and July 1937 on construction projects financed from various Federal funds is shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, June and July 1938 and July 1937* [1]

Federal agency	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	July 1938	June 1938 [2]	July 1937 [2]
Total	$120,010,090	$97,882,213	$134,123,988
Public Works Administration:			
Federal	1,907,073	409,925	1,178,699
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.	1,425,522	2,213,478	6,775,954
E. R. A. A.	16,754,077	30,058,440	21,622,521
Federal projects under The Works Program	14,604,846	3,645,000	49,224,530
Regular Federal appropriations	85,318,572	61,555,370	55,322,284

[1] Preliminary, subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for July and June 1938 and July 1937, is shown in table 10.

TABLE 10.—*Value of Public-Building and Highway-Construction Awards Financed Wholly From State Funds*

Type of project	Value of contracts		
	July 1938	June 1938	July 1937
Public building	$1,939,297	$1,894,157	$2,629,888
Highway construction	8,177,145	12,230,999	10,277,933

Retail Prices

SUMMARY FOR JULY 1938

Food and Coal

FOOD costs in July were 0.2 percent lower than in June. This slight decrease was the net result of a sharp drop in the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables and advances for meats and eggs. Other commodity groups showed comparatively little change.

Seasonal decreases in retail prices of coal during the 3-month period between March and June lowered the average for all sizes and grades of bituminous coal, and for stove, chestnut, and buckwheat sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite to approximately the level of prices in June 1937. The average price for pea size Pennsylvania anthracite, which showed the greatest decrease during the quarter, was 4.8 percent lower than in June 1937.

FOOD PRICES IN JULY 1938

RETAIL food costs decreased 0.2 precent between June and July due to lower prices for fresh fruits and vegetables. The decrease of 7.6 percent in the cost for this subgroup more than compensated for the continued advances for meats and eggs which amounted to 2.5 percent and 7.2 percent, respectively. Changes for other commodity groups were relatively small.

The food-cost index for July was 80.0 percent of the monthly average for the 1923–25 period. This was 6.9 percent lower than in July 1937 when the index was 85.9. Compared with July 1932, when the index stood at 68.3, the cost for food advanced 17.1 percent. Indexes for only two commodity groups, fruits and vegetables, and beverages and chocolate, were lower in 1938 than in 1932; fruits and vegetables, subject to seasonal price variations from year to year, decreased 1.2 percent, and beverages and chocolate dropped 10.2 percent. The cost for all food groups was considerably below the level of July 1929 when the all-foods index was 106.5 of the 1923–25 average.

Details by Commodity Groups

Indexes of retail food costs for July and June 1938, together with indexes for July 1937, 1932, and 1929, are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows trends in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 to July 1938, inclusive.

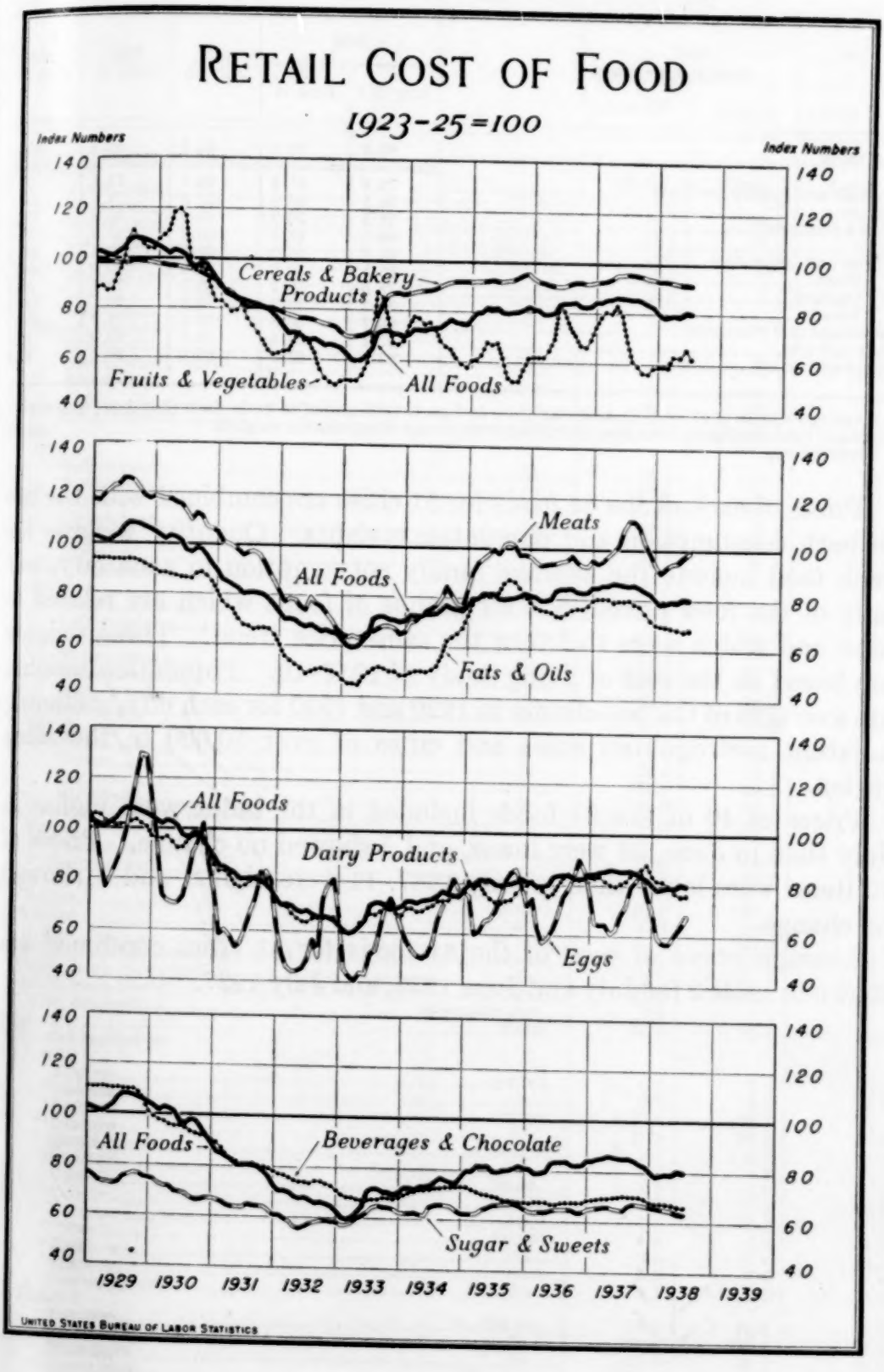

RETAIL COST OF FOOD
1923-25=100
Index Numbers
Index Numbers
140
120
100
80
60
40
Cereals & Bakery Products
Fruits & Vegetables
All Foods
Meats
All Foods
Fats & Oils
All Foods
Dairy Products
Eggs
All Foods
Beverages & Chocolate
Sugar & Sweets
1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, July and June 1938 and July 1937, 1932, and 1929*

[1923-25=100]

Commodity group	1938		1937	1932	1929
	July 12 [2]	June 14	July 13	July 15	July 15
All foods	80.0	80.2	85.9	68.3	106.5
Cereals and bakery products	91.4	91.8	95.7	75.6	97.9
Meats	99.3	96.9	107.8	79.3	125.9
Dairy products	76.2	76.0	80.9	63.8	101.6
Eggs	68.0	63.4	68.0	49.3	91.3
Fruits and vegetables	61.7	66.0	69.0	62.4	107.2
Fresh	60.3	65.2	67.0	62.4	108.3
Canned	78.0	78.2	83.5	70.5	98.5
Dried	59.2	59.0	76.3	55.1	103.5
Beverages and chocolate	66.7	66.8	70.4	74.2	110.6
Fats and oils	67.7	67.4	79.5	49.9	93.3
Sugar and sweets	63.3	63.8	65.1	56.5	72.6

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.

Prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities are combined with the use of both consumption and population weights. Quantity weights for each food include the average family consumption in each city, not only of the food priced, but for groups of foods which are related in kind and which seem to follow the same price trend. These weights are based on the cost of living study of 1917–19. Population weights are averages of the population in 1920 and 1930 for each city, including adjacent metropolitan areas and cities of over 50,000 in the same region.

Prices of 40 of the 84 foods included in the index were higher in July than in June, 39 were lower, and 5 showed no change. Prices of 72 items were lower than in July 1937, 11 were higher, and 1 showed no change.

Average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for July and June 1938, and July 1937.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, July and June 1938 and July 1937*

• [* Indicates the 42 foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article		1938		1937
		July 12 [1]	June 14	July 13
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Flour, wheat	pound	4.0	4.0	5.0
*Macaroni	do	14.8	14.8	15.4
*Wheat cereal	28-ounce package	24.4	24.4	24.6
*Corn flakes	8-ounce package	7.3	7.3	8.1
*Corn meal	pound	4.7	4.7	5.6
Hominy grits	24-ounce package	8.8	8.7	9.8
*Rice	pound	7.8	7.8	8.5
*Rolled oats	do	7.2	7.2	7.5
Bakery products:				
*Bread, white	do	8.8	8.8	8.9
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.7	9.8	9.8
Bread, rye	do	10.0	10.1	10.0
Cake	do	25.0	24.9	24.9
Soda crackers	do	16.1	16.3	18.0
Meats:				
Beef:				
*Sirloin steak	do	40.8	38.5	47.6
*Round steak	do	37.7	36.0	43.4
*Rib roast	do	30.9	29.5	35.4
*Chuck roast	do	24.5	23.2	27.8
*Plate	do	15.8	15.3	17.8
Liver	do	26.4	26.1	25.2
Veal: Cutlets	do	42.5	42.0	43.2
Pork:				
*Chops	do	35.8	34.7	41.8
Loin roast	do	29.4	28.3	34.7
*Bacon, sliced	do	37.1	36.5	41.6
Bacon, strip	do	31.4	30.9	34.8
*Ham, sliced	do	48.2	46.4	51.5
Ham, whole	do	29.7	28.9	31.8
Salt pork	do	20.8	20.6	25.5
Lamb:				
Breast	do	13.2	13.1	15.1
Chuck	do	23.4	22.7	25.3
*Leg	do	29.7	29.7	31.8
Rib chops	do	37.6	36.1	41.8
Poultry: *Roasting chickens	do	34.0	35.5	33.7
Fish:				
Salmon, pink	16-ounce can	13.3	13.4	13.1
*Salmon, red	do	26.3	26.8	25.5
Dairy products:				
*Butter	pound	32.8	32.2	38.3
*Cheese	do	25.9	26.2	28.4
Cream	½ pint	14.4	14.4	14.6
Milk, fresh (delivered and store)	quart	12.0	12.0	12.1
*Milk, fresh (delivered)	do	12.3	12.3	12.3
Milk, fresh (store)	do	11.2	11.3	11.6
*Milk, evaporated	14½-ounce can	7.1	7.1	7.5
*Eggs	dozen	34.6	32.3	35.1
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh:				
Apples	pound	5.4	5.6	6.8
*Bananas	do	6.0	6.1	6.3
Lemons	dozen	27.0	26.7	35.1
*Oranges	do	27.8	26.5	42.8
Beans, green	pound	6.4	9.3	8.0
*Cabbage	do	3.1	3.8	3.1
Carrots	bunch	4.8	6.0	6.2
Celery	stalk	7.8	9.3	9.9
Lettuce	head	9.8	8.2	7.8
*Onions	pound	4.4	4.6	4.2
*Potatoes	do	2.3	2.7	2.3
Spinach	do	6.6	5.0	7.0
Sweetpotatoes	do	5.1	4.5	6.4
Canned:				
Peaches	No. 2½ can	19.3	19.3	19.5
Pears	do	21.5	21.6	21.9
Pineapple	do	22.0	22.4	22.9
Asparagus	No. 2 can	29.5	29.9	29.0
Beans, green	do	11.4	11.4	12.4

[1] Preliminary.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, July and June 1938 and July 1937*—Continued

Article	1938		1937
	July 12	June 14	July 13
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.			
Canned—Continued.	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
*Beans with pork—16-ounce can	7.4	7.4	8.0
*Corn—No. 2 can	11.6	11.7	13.1
*Peas—do	15.5	15.4	16.3
*Tomatoes—do	8.9	8.9	9.4
Tomato soup—10½-ounce can	7.4	7.4	8.1
Dried:			
Peaches—pound	15.3	15.5	17.0
*Prunes—do	9.2	9.2	10.6
*Raisins—15-ounce package	9.9	10.0	10.2
Black-eyed peas—pound	7.5	7.4	9.9
Lima beans—do	9.0	9.0	12.0
*Navy beans—do	6.4	6.3	10.8
Beverages and chocolate:			
*Coffee—do	23.1	23.1	25.8
*Tea—¼ pound	17.7	17.8	18.1
Cocoa—8-ounce can	8.6	8.7	10.5
Chocolate—8-ounce package	16.1	16.2	16.5
Fats and oils:			
*Lard—pound	12.9	12.7	17.1
Lard compound—do	13.1	13.0	15.8
*Vegetable shortening—do	19.4	19.4	22.1
Salad oil—pint	24.5	24.7	25.4
Mayonnaise—½ pint	17.4	17.5	17.5
*Oleomargarine—pound	17.1	17.1	18.8
Peanut butter—do	18.5	18.5	19.9
Sugar and sweets:			
*Sugar—do	[1] 5.3	[1] 5.3	5.5
Corn sirup—24-ounce can	13.9	13.9	14.6
Molasses—18-ounce can	13.7	13.7	14.5
Strawberry preserves—pound	21.6	21.6	22.0

[1] Quotations for 1938 are for sales in units of 10 pounds each. Prior to November 1937, prices were quoted on sales in units of various sizes. The change to a common unit, 10 pounds, resulted in a reduction of ⅓₀ of 1 cent per pound at the time of revision.

Details by Regions and Cities

The decrease of 0.2 percent in the composite index for all foods between June and July was the net result of decreases in costs in 23 cities and increases in 27. Those for which lower costs were shown included 16 of the 18 cities in the North Central and Pacific areas. Increased costs for foods were shown for all of the New England and West South Central cities, and for 9 of the 12 cities in the East South Central and South Atlantic areas.

The greatest decreases occurred in the following cities in the East North Central area: Springfield (Ill.), 3.9 percent; Milwaukee, 3.2 percent; and Columbus and Peoria, 2.6 percent. Each of these cities reported greater than average price decreases for fresh fruits and vegetables, particularly potatoes and carrots. In Milwaukee, the price of white bread decreased about 1 cent per pound. Columbus and Peoria reported a drop of a little less than 2 percent for flour, contrary to the price movement for all cities combined.

The greatest increases were reported for Little Rock, 2.6 percent; Jacksonville, 2.5 percent; and New Orleans, 2.2 percent. In each of these cities the cost for fresh fruits and vegetables advanced between 7 percent and 9.5 percent in contrast to the average decrease of 7.6 percent shown for all cities. Increases of 6.4 percent in the price of butter in Little Rock, and 1.5 percent in the cost for cereals in New Orleans also contributed to the advance for those cities.

Indexes of retail food costs by regions and cities are given in table 3 for July and June 1938 and July 1937.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities,*[1] *July and June 1938, and July 1937*

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1938		1937	Region and city	1938		1937
	July 12 [2]	June 14	July 13		July 12 [2]	June 14	July 13
United States	80.0	80.2	85.9	South Atlantic	77.9	77.6	85.6
New England	79.3	78.4	84.5	Atlanta	73.0	72.5	84.2
Boston	77.2	76.1	82.2	Baltimore	84.2	84.2	89.7
Bridgeport	84.5	84.3	90.1	Charleston, S. C.	79.6	78.2	86.2
Fall River	82.0	81.9	87.1	Jacksonville	78.7	76.8	84.2
Manchester	82.1	81.9	86.8	Norfolk	75.7	74.7	83.4
New Haven	83.4	82.8	89.6	Richmond	71.0	70.7	80.1
Portland, Maine	80.4	79.3	86.8	Savannah	78.9	78.4	85.6
Providence	79.1	78.4	84.0	Washington, D. C.	79.9	80.6	88.2
Middle Atlantic	80.9	80.8	86.2	East South Central	73.7	73.5	82.9
Buffalo	77.4	77.6	84.7	Birmingham	69.4	68.6	80.1
Newark	83.3	82.2	86.8	Louisville	81.9	83.5	88.9
New York	81.2	80.8	85.0	Memphis	76.5	75.3	84.4
Philadelphia	81.4	82.2	89.4	Mobile	76.1	75.3	83.2
Pittsburgh	80.2	79.6	85.6				
Rochester	82.5	83.0	87.3	West South Central	77.6	76.2	82.0
Scranton	76.6	77.1	83.2	Dallas	73.7	72.8	79.5
				Houston	77.7	76.5	81.9
East North Central	80.8	82.0	87.3	Little Rock	74.2	72.3	82.5
Chicago	81.2	82.5	87.8	New Orleans	83.5	81.7	85.5
Cincinnati	80.8	81.9	87.2				
Cleveland	82.5	81.7	85.2	Mountain	83.8	83.5	90.0
Columbus, Ohio	78.1	80.2	85.4	Butte	79.4	79.2	85.1
Detroit	80.0	81.4	89.0	Denver	86.3	85.7	92.1
Indianapolis	79.7	81.3	86.2	Salt Lake City	80.5	80.6	87.6
Milwaukee	84.2	87.0	91.0				
Peoria	81.6	83.7	86.5	Pacific	77.0	77.2	82.3
Springfield, Ill.	78.2	81.3	86.9	Los Angeles	72.0	72.2	77.9
				Portland, Oreg.	80.8	80.9	88.1
West North Central	82.5	83.7	89.7	San Francisco	80.7	81.3	84.3
Kansas City	81.0	82.0	88.4	Seattle	80.4	79.6	87.4
Minneapolis	86.2	87.4	93.7				
Omaha	76.8	78.0	85.1				
St. Louis	84.7	85.9	91.1				
St. Paul	81.8	83.6	89.0				

[1] Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

[2] Preliminary.

COAL PRICES IN JUNE 1938

RETAIL prices of both bituminous coal and anthracite showed seasonal decreases between March and June. A decline of 5.0 percent for bituminous coal brought the price to the level of June 1937. The greatest decrease for anthracite was reported for pea size which dropped 9.4 percent between March and June, bringing the price 4.8 percent lower than in June 1937. Decreases for other sizes during the quarter were 5.7 percent for stove, 6.0 percent for chestnut, and 3.1 percent for buckwheat. For these sizes, June prices were practically the same as in the corresponding month of 1937.

Average prices of bituminous coal in 38 cities and Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities of the United States, together with price indexes compared with the average for the 12-month period October 1922 through September 1925 as 100, are presented in table 4 for June and March 1938 and June 1937.

TABLE 4.—*Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined, June and March 1938 and June 1937*

Article	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail prices (October 1922–September 1925=100)			Percentage change, June 15, 1938, compared with–	
	1938		1937	1938		1937	1938	1937
	June 15 [1]	Mar. 15	June 15	June 15 [1]	Mar. 15	June 15	Mar. 15	June 15
Bituminous coal (38 cities), old series [2]	$8.38	$8.83	$8.39	86.4	91.0	86.4	−5.0	0
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: [3]								
Stove	10.52	11.15	10.49	74.8	79.3	74.5	−5.7	+.3
Chestnut	10.63	11.31	10.66	75.7	80.5	75.9	−6.0	−.2
Pea	8.41	9.28	8.83	------	------	------	−9.4	−4.8
Buckwheat	7.57	7.82	7.60	------	------	------	−3.1	−.4

[1] Preliminary. [2] Unweighted average. Weighted composite prices are in preparation.
[3] Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail or rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.

Details by Regions and Cities

Bituminous coal.—Throughout the Central and Atlantic coast cities, prices for bituminous coal were generally lower in June as compared with March. The decreases for low volatile averaged slightly more than for the high volatile coals. For low volatile coals, the greatest decline, approximately $1.90 a ton, was shown for stoker and run of mine in Portland, Maine. Decreases of from $1 to $1.56 per ton were reported for one or more sizes in the following cities: Fall River, Milwaukee, Richmond, Omaha, and Kansas City. Buffalo was an exception to the general price movement. In that city, advances of from 20 to 25 cents per ton were reported for both low volatile and eastern high volatile coals.

For eastern or Appalachian high volatile coals, three cities reported price decreases of $1 or more. Reductions ranging from $1.16 to $1.68 per ton were shown for New Orleans, and from $1.32 to $1.50 per ton for Atlanta. Cincinnati reported a decrease of about $1 per ton for egg size.

Decreases for western high volatile were less marked. Few cities in the central areas showed a decrease of as much as 50 cents per ton. The only city for which a marked decrease was shown was Houston where prices for lump size dropped about $1.60 per ton. The cities of the Mountain and Pacific areas, with the exception of Seattle, reported practically no change. In Seattle there was a reduction ranging from 20 cents per ton for nut size to 50 cents per ton for egg.

Average retail prices of bituminous coal by kinds and sizes are shown in table 5 for each of 47 cities.

TABLE 5.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities and Grades, June and March 1938 and June 1937*

LOW VOLATILE

Region, city, and size of coal	1938		1937
	June 15 [1]	Mar. 15	June 15 [2]
New England:			
Boston:			
Stoker	$7.58	$7.62	$7.52
Run of mine	9.19	9.15	9.18
Fall River:			
Egg	10.50	11.50	10.50
Stoker	7.65	7.65	[3]
Run of mine	8.75	8.75	8.75
Manchester:			
Run of mine	10.50	10.50	10.08
Portland, Maine:			
Egg	11.00	11.00	[3]
Stoker	6.56	8.41	8.20
Run of mine	6.70	8.65	8.50
Providence:			
Run of mine	7.85	8.08	8.38
Middle Atlantic:			
Buffalo:			
Egg	7.88	7.65	8.13
Run of mine	6.25	6.23	[3]
Newark:			
Nut	9.34	9.34	9.42
New York: [4]			
Stoker	7.44	7.44	7.35
Run of mine	7.47	7.39	7.26
East North Central:			
Chicago: [5]			
Lump	10.54	11.48	10.65
Egg	10.64	11.55	10.83
Nut	10.38	11.12	10.35
Stoker	8.18	8.35	8.50
Run of mine	8.40	8.80	8.54
Cincinnati: [5]			
Lump	7.92	8.50	7.92
Egg	7.92	8.50	7.94
Nut	7.57	8.20	7.56
Stoker	6.21	6.22	5.87
Run of mine	6.88	6.88	6.70
Cleveland: [5]			
Lump	8.90	9.34	8.74
Egg	9.05	9.44	8.86
Stove	8.99	9.43	8.65
Stoker	7.73	7.98	7.66
Run of mine	7.80	7.92	7.83
East North Central—Con.			
Columbus: [5]			
Lump	$7.59	$8.24	$7.38
Detroit: [5]			
Lump	8.31	9.23	8.63
Egg	8.33	9.23	8.60
Nut	7.24	7.85	7.39
Stoker	7.42	7.62	7.34
Run of mine	7.25	7.73	7.33
Indianapolis:			
Lump	7.79	8.56	7.88
Egg	7.89	8.64	7.95
Nut	7.42	8.13	7.25
Stoker	6.88	7.25	6.75
Run of mine	7.25	7.50	7.17
Milwaukee:			
Lump	10.75	12.25	[3]
Egg	10.75	12.25	11.25
Stove	10.25	11.75	10.75
Stoker	8.31	9.04	8.65
Run of mine	8.40	9.47	8.75
West North Central:			
Kansas City: [4]			
Lump	9.00	10.27	9.60
Egg	8.81	10.15	[3]
Minneapolis:			
Lump	13.30	13.65	13.15
Egg	13.43	13.80	13.30
Stove	13.15	13.45	12.75
Stoker	9.10	9.05	8.69
Run of mine	11.20	11.35	10.82
Omaha:			
Lump	10.35	11.25	10.25
Egg	9.50	11.06	10.75
Nut	9.17	10.33	[3]
St. Louis: [4]			
Egg	8.98	9.70	9.27
St. Paul:			
Lump	13.30	13.65	13.15
Egg	13.43	13.80	13.28
Stove	13.15	13.45	12.75
Stoker	9.10	9.05	8.69
Run of mine	11.20	11.35	10.79

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities and Grades, June and March 1938 and June 1937*—Continued

LOW VOLATILE—Continued

Region, city, and size of coal	1938		1937
	June 15	Mar. 15	June 15
South Atlantic:			
Baltimore:			
Lump	$8.34	$8.42	$8.25
Egg	8.93	8.96	8.10
Stoker	6.70	6.52	7.00
Run of mine	7.02	7.11	7.00
Charleston, S. C.:			
Lump	10.33	10.25	10.25
Run of mine	8.25	8.25	(3)
Jacksonville:			
Egg	12.50	13.00	(3)
Norfolk:			
Lump	8.69	9.50	8.75
Egg	8.69	9.50	8.75
Stove	8.69	9.50	8.75
Stoker	7.50	8.00	7.50
Run of mine	7.50	8.00	7.50
South Atlantic—Continued.			
Richmond:			
Lump	$8.80	$10.00	$9.25
Egg	8.75	9.75	8.50
Stove	8.50	9.55	8.05
Stoker	7.17	7.79	7.04
Run of mine	7.25	7.85	7.13
Washington, D. C.:[6]			
Egg	10.11	10.83	10.25
Stove	10.03	10.69	10.00
Stoker	7.72	7.52	7.50
Run of mine	8.25	8.22	8.15
East South Central:			
Louisville:			
Lump	7.71	8.21	7.81
Egg	7.79	8.31	7.82
West South Central:			
Little Rock:[4]			
Lump	8.80	8.93	(3)

HIGH VOLATILE, EASTERN (Appalachian District)

Middle Atlantic:			
Buffalo:			
Lump	$6.13	$5.91	$6.23
Egg	6.13	5.91	6.08
Nut	5.96	5.70	5.88
Stoker	5.90	5.70	5.88
Pittsburgh:			
Lump	4.42	5.23	4.75
Egg	4.04	4.82	4.48
Nut	3.75	4.54	4.37
Stoker	4.25	4.82	4.52
Rochester:			
Lump	(3)	6.25	(3)
Egg	(3)	6.25	(3)
Nut	6.20	6.26	6.25
East North Central:			
Chicago:[5]			
Lump	9.44	10.05	9.46
Egg	9.10	9.69	9.36
Nut	8.85	9.26	9.18
Stoker	8.37	8.50	8.58
Cincinnati:[5]			
Lump	6.04	6.75	6.07
Egg	5.68	6.72	5.97
Nut	(3)	6.23	(3)
Stoker	6.07	6.05	5.87
Cleveland:[5]			
Lump	7.52	7.68	7.42
Egg	7.18	7.27	7.15
Stoker	7.24	7.45	7.25
Columbus:[5]			
Lump	6.35	6.65	6.12
Egg	5.94	6.27	5.75
Stoker	5.81	6.05	5.46
Detroit:[5]			
Lump	7.17	7.82	7.27
Egg	6.87	7.34	6.95
Nut	6.81	7.37	7.00
Stoker	6.77	7.22	6.87
Indianapolis:			
Lump	6.95	7.76	6.97
Egg	6.65	7.21	6.63
Stoker	6.63	7.13	6.70
Milwaukee:			
Lump	8.45	9.12	8.73
Egg	8.16	8.80	8.43
Nut	8.06	8.71	8.33
Stoker	7.92	8.69	8.26
Peoria:[5]			
Lump	8.53	8.94	8.58
Egg	8.31	8.57	8.31
Springfield, Ill.:[5]			
Lump	(3)	9.40	(3)
West North Central:			
Minneapolis:			
Lump	$10.98	$11.25	$11.31
Egg	10.55	10.88	11.18
Stove	10.15	10.62	10.78
Stoker	8.88	9.07	8.55
St. Paul:			
Lump	11.01	11.28	11.36
Egg	10.58	10.96	11.26
Stove	10.19	10.69	10.89
Stoker	8.90	9.13	8.69
South Atlantic:			
Atlanta:			
Lump	6.43	7.75	6.50
Egg	6.18	7.50	6.25
Nut	6.00	7.50	(3)
Stoker	5.96	6.63	6.00
Baltimore:			
Egg	7.00	7.08	7.19
Nut	7.00	6.90	7.00
Stoker	6.63	6.75	(3)
Charleston, S. C.:			
Lump	9.75	9.75	9.25
Egg	9.50	9.50	9.00
Jacksonville:			
Lump	11.00	11.33	10.00
Stoker	8.00	7.50	(3)
Norfolk:			
Lump	7.50	7.50	7.50
Egg	7.50	7.50	7.50
Nut	7.50	7.50	7.50
Stoker	7.50	8.00	7.50
Richmond:			
Lump	8.50	8.95	8.25
Egg	7.53	8.07	7.36
Nut	7.25	7.71	7.04
Stoker	7.03	7.45	6.81
Savannah:[7]			
Lump	9.75	10.25	9.56
Egg	9.38	9.92	8.83
Nut	7.40	7.88	8.00
Stoker	7.10	7.25	7.00
Washington, D. C.:[6]			
Lump	8.50	8.79	8.42
Egg	8.22	8.77	8.25
Nut	8.09	8.55	8.00
East South Central:			
Birmingham:[4]			
Lump	5.99	6.88	6.43
Egg	5.96	6.84	6.29
Nut	5.69	6.48	6.04
Stoker	5.72	6.15	5.81

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Average Retail Prices of Bituminous Coal per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities and Grades, June and March 1938 and June 1937*—Continued

HIGH VOLATILE, EASTERN (Appalachian District)—Continued

Region, city, and size of coal	1938 June 15	1938 Mar. 15	1937 June 15
East South Central—Con.			
Louisville:			
Lump	$5.93	$6.55	$6.02
Egg	5.59	6.05	5.72
Nut	5.50	5.96	[3]
Stoker	5.51	5.98	5.70
Memphis:			
Lump	8.02	8.11	8.10
Egg	7.88	8.08	8.25
Stoker	6.65	6.75	6.75
Mobile: [4]			
Lump	8.20	9.16	8.44
East South Central—Con. Mobile—Continued.			
Egg	$8.58	$9.49	$8.82
Nut	8.31	9.27	8.44
Stoker	7.14	7.14	6.63
West South Central:			
New Orleans: [5]			
Lump	9.43	10.59	10.09
Egg	9.53	10.92	10.40
Nut	9.45	11.13	[3]
Stoker	[3]	6.63	6.50

HIGH VOLATILE, WESTERN

East North Central:			
Chicago: [5]			
Lump	$7.79	$8.45	$7.87
Egg	7.75	8.38	7.92
Nut	7.73	8.36	8.00
Stoker	6.88	7.02	7.38
Indianapolis:			
Lump	5.35	5.70	5.46
Egg	5.10	5.25	4.88
Stoker	5.20	5.58	5.13
Peoria: [5]			
Lump	4.47	4.51	5.05
Egg	4.46	4.46	4.51
Stoker	4.00	4.25	3.86
Springfield, Ill.: [5]			
Lump	4.89	4.83	3.76
Egg	4.99	4.96	3.75
Nut	4.53	4.47	3.76
Stoker	4.39	4.37	3.56
West North Central:			
Kansas City: [4]			
Lump	6.25	6.25	6.09
Nut	5.82	6.01	5.97
Stoker	5.34	5.50	[3]
Minneapolis:			
Lump	9.70	10.10	10.12
Egg	9.55	9.79	10.07
Nut	9.40	9.55	9.55
Stoker	7.67	8.09	7.45
Omaha:			
Lump	8.97	9.50	8.79
Egg	8.54	9.14	8.50
Nut	8.26	8.83	8.44
Stoker	7.63	7.54	7.08
St. Louis: [4]			
Lump	5.33	5.64	5.52
Egg	5.31	5.73	5.66
Nut	5.45	5.79	6.05
Stoker	5.25	5.49	5.64
St. Paul:			
Lump	9.70	10.10	10.13
Egg	9.53	9.63	10.06
Nut	9.40	9.55	9.55
Stoker	7.67	8.08	7.39
East South Central:			
Louisville:			
Lump	4.85	5.39	4.83
Egg	4.53	4.94	4.75
Nut	4.48	4.86	4.50
Stoker	4.77	5.13	4.88
East South Central—Contd.			
Memphis:			
Lump	$6.69	$6.75	$6.75
Egg	6.69	6.75	6.75
Nut	6.38	6.60	6.50
Stoker	5.75	5.75	6.55
West South Central:			
Dallas:			
Lump	10.63	10.63	10.25
Nut	9.50	9.50	9.25
Houston:			
Lump	10.63	12.25	11.00
Nut	9.00	9.75	9.00
Mountain:			
Butte:			
Lump	11.75	11.75	11.80
Egg	[3]	11.00	10.75
Nut	10.75	10.75	10.75
Denver: [4]			
Lump	8.17	8.20	7.83
Egg	8.10	8.18	7.81
Nut	7.44	7.34	7.49
Stoker	5.46	5.36	4.57
Salt Lake City: [4]			
Lump	7.61	7.62	7.64
Stove	7.40	7.40	7.40
Nut	6.89	6.89	6.89
Stoker	5.68	5.68	5.74
Pacific:			
Los Angeles: [5]			
Lump	16.59	16.83	16.59
Stove	16.48	16.48	[3]
Nut	[3]	15.45	[3]
Portland, Oreg.:			
Lump	13.80	13.80	13.28
Stove	13.80	13.85	[3]
Nut	12.65	12.65	12.10
Stoker	10.38	10.38	9.15
San Francisco: [5]			
Lump	17.51	17.51	16.74
Stove	16.48	16.48	16.17
Nut	[3]	13.39	[3]
Stoker	11.23	11.23	[3]
Seattle: [4]			
Lump	11.15	11.42	10.97
Egg	11.17	11.67	10.65
Nut	9.91	10.11	9.54
Stoker	8.07	8.45	7.53

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Revised subsequent to mimeographed release.
[3] Insufficient data.
[4] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[5] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[6] Prices on ton of 2,240 pounds.
[7] Prices include municipal weighing charge of 10 cents per ton.
[8] Prices include 4-percent sales tax.

Anthracite.—Lower prices for Pennsylvania anthracite in June as compared with March were reported for stove, chestnut, and pea sizes for each of 25 cities. In each of these cities prices for stove and chestnut decreased in like amounts. The greatest drop, $1.30 per ton, was reported for Milwaukee. Prices for pea coal decreased more than for stove and chestnut in 17 of the cities and the average price was 9.4 percent lower than in March. In contrast to the downward movements for other sizes, prices for buckwheat declined in only 15 cities, remained unchanged in 5, and advanced slightly in 5. Prices of Arkansas anthracite in Houston decreased $1.50 per ton. This was the only city reporting changes for other anthracite.

Average prices of the various sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities and of other anthracite for 5 cities are shown in table 6 for June and March 1938, and June 1937.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities, June and March 1938, and June 1937*

PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE

Region, city, and size of coal	1938		1937
	June 15 [1]	Mar. 15	June 15
New England:			
Boston:			
Stove	$12.41	$12.75	$12.00
Chestnut	12.41	12.75	12.00
Pea	11.11	11.50	10.75
Buckwheat	9.83	9.75	9.53
Bridgeport:			
Stove	11.55	12.10	11.50
Chestnut	11.55	12.10	11.50
Pea	10.50	11.00	10.50
Buckwheat	9.00	9.00	9.00
Fall River:			
Stove	12.95	14.00	13.00
Chestnut	12.65	13.75	12.75
Pea	10.00	11.75	10.75
Buckwheat	9.50	10.00	10.00
Manchester:			
Stove	13.50	14.19	13.50
Chestnut	13.50	14.19	13.50
Pea	12.25	13.00	12.50
Buckwheat	10.75	10.75	10.67
New Haven:			
Stove	12.50	13.00	12.00
Chestnut	12.50	13.00	12.00
Pea	10.75	11.50	10.25
Buckwheat	9.25	9.43	9.25
Portland, Maine:			
Stove	12.50	13.50	12.56
Chestnut	12.50	13.50	12.56
Pea	11.05	12.25	11.44
Buckwheat	10.50	10.50	10.50
Providence:			
Stove	13.18	13.38	12.90
Chestnut	13.18	13.38	12.90
Pea	11.70	11.98	11.50
Buckwheat	10.00	10.00	10.00
Middle Atlantic:			
Buffalo:			
Stove	11.35	11.95	11.25
Chestnut	11.35	11.95	11.25
Pea	9.40	10.10	9.50
Buckwheat	8.45	8.35	8.40
Middle Atlantic—Contd.			
Newark:			
Stove	$10.75	$11.25	$10.50
Chestnut	10.75	11.25	10.50
Pea	9.25	10.00	9.21
Buckwheat	8.13	8.41	8.43
New York: [2]			
Stove	10.28	11.00	10.37
Chestnut	10.28	11.00	10.37
Pea	8.32	9.34	8.90
Buckwheat	7.48	7.75	7.51
Philadelphia: [3]			
Stove	9.50	10.25	9.89
Chestnut	9.50	10.25	9.89
Pea	7.97	8.67	8.45
Buckwheat	7.56	7.79	7.69
Pittsburgh:			
Stove	12.50	12.63	12.50
Chestnut	12.55	12.69	12.56
Rochester:			
Stove	11.56	11.93	11.08
Chestnut	11.56	11.93	11.08
Pea	9.69	10.32	9.53
Buckwheat	8.53	8.41	8.20
Scranton:			
Stove	7.41	7.88	7.13
Chestnut	7.41	7.88	7.13
Pea	5.86	6.44	5.84
Buckwheat	5.00	5.00	4.90
East North Central:			
Chicago: [4]			
Stove	14.14	15.07	14.03
Chestnut	14.13	15.07	14.03
Pea	12.62	13.65	12.73
Buckwheat	11.59	12.05	11.54
Cleveland: [4]			
Stove	13.23	13.65	13.13
Chestnut	13.23	13.69	13.13
Detroit: [4]			
Stove	11.70	12.45	11.89
Chestnut	11.70	12.45	11.89
Pea	10.58	11.20	10.65

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Anthracite per Ton of 2,000 Pounds, by Cities, June and March 1938, and June 1937*—Continued

PENNSYLVANIA ANTHRACITE—Continued

Region, city, and size of coal	1938		1937	Region, city, and size of coa	1938		1937
	June 15	Mar. 15	June 15		June 15	Mar. 15	June 15
East North Central—Con.				South Atlantic:			
Milwaukee:				Baltimore:			
Stove	$12.65	$13.95	$12.95	Stove	$10.20	$10.33	$9.45
Chestnut	12.65	13.95	12.95	Chestnut	10.20	10.33	9.45
Pea	11.20	12.70	11.71	Pea	8.67	8.80	7.95
Buckwheat	10.70	11.35	10.85	Buckwheat	8.02	8.12	7.35
West North Central:				Norfolk:			
Minneapolis:				Stove	12.25	13.00	11.75
Stove	15.10	15.50	15.05	Chestnut	12.25	13.00	11.75
Chestnut	15.10	15.50	15.05	Pea	10.25	12.00	10.25
Pea	13.60	14.10	13.80	Buckwheat	9.75	10.00	9.75
Buckwheat	12.85	12.75	12.94	Richmond:			
St. Louis: [2]				Stove	11.92	12.92	11.75
Stove	14.03	14.54	14.26	Chestnut	11.92	12.92	11.75
Chestnut	14.03	14.54	14.26	Pea	10.70	11.50	10.50
Pea	12.50	13.18	12.58	Buckwheat	9.30	10.25	9.25
St. Paul:				Washington, D. C.: [3]			
Stove	15.10	15.47	15.05	Stove	12.02	12.79	11.30
Chestnut	15.10	15.47	15.05	Chestnut	12.02	12.79	11.30
Pea	13.60	14.09	13.80	Pea	10.22	10.99	9.80
Buckwheat	12.85	12.76	12.94	Buckwheat	9.00	9.23	8.80

OTHER ANTHRACITE

West South Central:				Mountain:			
Dallas:				Denver: [2]			
Arkansas, egg	$13.25	$13.25	(6)	Colorado, furnace	$15.81	$15.81	$15.81
Houston:				stove	15.81	15.81	15.81
Arkansas, egg	14.00	15.50	(6)	Pacific:			
Little Rock: [2]				San Francisco: [4]			
Arkansas, egg	8.93	8.93	(6)	New Mexico, egg	23.69	23.69	23.96

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Prices include 2-percent sales tax.
[3] Prices include 2-percent sales tax for March and June 1938.
[4] Prices include 3-percent sales tax.
[5] Prices on ton of 2,240 pounds.
[6] Insufficient data.

PRICE CONTROL IN JAPAN

PROVISION is made in an imperial ordinance of April 1938 for the setting up of central and local price-control committees in Japan. The Minister of Commerce and Industry is to be the chairman of the central committee, which will be composed of not more than 25 members selected from higher Government officials and persons with special technical qualifications. The principal duties of this committee are to establish standard prices for the principal commodities, to consider and investigate ways and means for checking a rise in prices, and to submit petitions to the proper officials concerning such measures.[1]

[1] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, July 25, 1938, p. 90

The ordinance provides for the creation of committees of experts, attached to the central committee, for the purpose of formulating plans to be applied to all the various kinds of commodities. Such committees have already been established for textiles, foodstuffs, fuel, chemical products, metallurgical products, paper, house and ground rent, and transportation rates.

Higher prefectoral officials and persons having considerable technical knowledge will constitute the local committees, each of which will be headed by the prefect as chairman. These bodies will be responsible for the supervision of the movement in prices in the different localities, and will be authorized to adapt to local conditions the standard prices established by the central committee.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY 1938

Summary

THE recent upward movement in wholesale commodity prices continued through July when the Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of over 800 price series advanced 0.6 percent, from 78.3 to 78.8. Pronounced advances in prices of farm products, foods, hides and leather products, textile products, and chemicals and drugs largely accounted for the increase. The July all-commodity index, 78.8, was 0.9 percent above the year's low reached in May when the index had fallen to 78.1 percent of the 1926 average. When compared with July of last year the index showed a decline of 10.4 percent.

Six of the ten major group classifications advanced during the month. These were chemicals and drugs, 1.8 percent; foods and hides and leather products, 1.6 percent; farm products, 1.0 percent; textile products, 0.9 percent; and fuel and lighting materials, 0.5 percent. Decreases were registered for the following groups: Metals and metal products, 0.9 percent; housefurnishing goods, 0.8 percent; building materials, 0.6 percent; and miscellaneous commodities, 0.3 percent.

The index for each of the groups was below the level of July a year ago. The decreases range from 0.9 percent for metals and metal products to 22.3 percent for farm products.

Advancing prices for agricultural commodities together with higher prices for coffee, copra, pepper, hides, skins, raw silk, raw jute, coal, scrap steel, tankage, and crude rubber caused the raw materials group index to rise 1.3 percent during the month. Semimanufactured commodity prices advanced 0.3 percent and finished products rose 0.4 percent. Compared with July a year ago raw materials prices showed a decline of 16.4 percent, semimanufactured commodity prices dropped 14.6 percent, and finished products were down 7.1 percent.

The index for the large group of "All commodities other than farm products," reflecting the trend in prices of nonagricultural commodities, advanced 0.6 percent. It was, however, 7.7 percent below the July 1937 level.

Industrial commodity prices as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods" advanced 0.1 percent and were 5.7 percent lower than they were a year ago.

A comparison of the July level of wholesale prices with June 1938 and July 1937 is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Comparison of Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices for July 1938 With June 1938 and July 1937*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	July 1938	June 1938	Change from a month ago	July 1937	Change from a year ago
			Percent		*Percent*
All commodities	78.8	78.3	+0.6	87.9	−10.4
Farm products	69.4	68.7	+1.0	89.3	−22.3
Foods	74.3	73.1	+1.6	86.2	−13.8
Hides and leather products	91.5	90.1	+1.6	106.7	−14.2
Textile products	66.1	65.5	+.9	78.3	−15.6
Fuel and lighting materials	76.8	76.4	+.5	78.1	−1.7
Metals and metal products	95.2	96.1	−.9	96.1	−.9
Building materials	89.2	89.7	−.6	96.7	−7.8
Chemicals and drugs	77.7	76.3	+1.8	83.9	−7.4
Housefurnishing goods	86.4	87.1	−.8	89.7	−3.7
Miscellaneous	72.7	72.9	−.3	79.0	−8.0
Raw materials	72.3	71.4	+1.3	86.5	−16.4
Semimanufactured articles	74.3	74.1	+.3	87.0	−14.6
Finished products	82.5	82.2	+.4	88.8	−7.1
All commodities other than farm products	80.8	80.3	+.6	87.5	−7.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods	81.4	81.3	+.1	86.3	−5.7

The number of changes within each group which influenced the movement of the all-commodity index in July is shown in table 2.

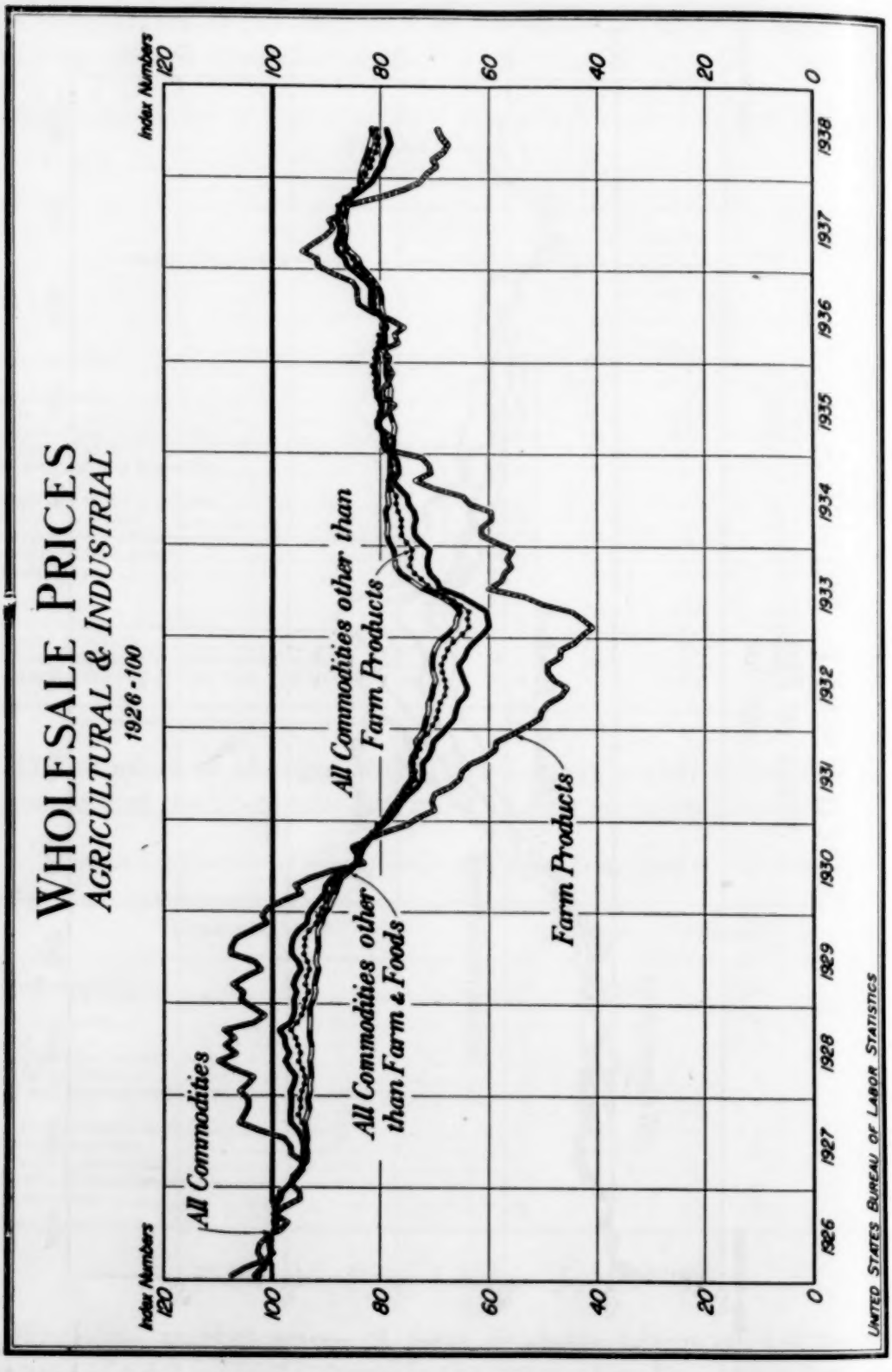
TABLE 2.—*Number of Items Changing in Price From June to July 1938*

Commodity group	Increases	Decreases	No change
All commodities	204	179	430
Farm products	34	26	7
Foods	49	30	43
Hides and leather products	12	5	24
Textile products	36	15	63
Fuel and lighting materials	11	6	7
Metals and metal products	19	42	85
Building materials	15	14	57
Chemicals and drugs	13	8	68
Housefurnishing goods	4	12	45
Miscellaneous	11	21	31

Wholesale Price Level in July 1938

Wholesale market prices of farm products advanced 1.0 largely because of a 5.2 percent increase in the livestock and poultry subgroup. Quotations were higher for calves, steers, hogs, corn, cotton, eggs, peanuts, dried beans, and wool. Grains declined 7.0 percent to the

WHOLESALE PRICES
STAGE OF PROCESSING
1926 - 100
Index Numbers
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
All Commodities
Finished Products
Semimanufactured
Raw Material
1926
1927
1928
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS


WHOLESALE PRICES
AGRICULTURAL & INDUSTRIAL
1926-100
Index Numbers
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
All Commodities
All Commodities other than Farm Products
All Commodities other than Farm & Foods
Farm Products
1926
1927
1928
1929
1930
1931
1932
1933
1934
1935
1936
1937
1938
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

lowest point reached since October 1933. Sharp losses were reported in prices for wheat, oats, barley, rye, live poultry, apples, lemons, oranges, hay, hops, onions, and potatoes. From January to July 1938 prices of grains dropped over 22 percent while livestock and poultry rose 7.5 percent. Although the farm products group index rose to 69.4 during July it was 22.3 percent below the level for July a year ago.

Increases of 6.2 percent for meats and 1.5 percent for dairy products largely accounted for an advance of 1.6 percent in the foods group during the month. Higher prices were reported for butter, dried apricots, fresh beef, mutton, fresh pork, cocoa beans, copra, lard, oleomargarine, oleo oil, raw sugar, edible tallow, and vegetable oils. Fruits and vegetables declined 8.6 percent and cereal products dropped 1.7 percent during July. Important food items which were cheaper were flour, canned fruits, bananas, canned string beans, and dressed poultry. Since January wholesale prices of meats have advanced 8.6 percent. Dairy products on the other hand have declined nearly 17 percent and cereal products have decreased 5.0 percent. The food index for July, 74.3, was 13.8 percent lower than it was a year ago.

The index for the hides and leather products group also advanced 1.6 percent during the month because of a 13.6 percent increase in hide and skin prices and 1.1 percent for leather. Average wholesale prices of shoes and harness declined fractionally. Despite the sharp upward movement in prices of hides and skins during July this subgroup shows a decline of 42 percent when compared with August 1937.

As a result of increases of 8.3 percent for silk and rayon, 1.9 percent for cotton goods, 0.4 percent for woolen and worsted goods, and 0.2 percent for hosiery and underwear the textile products group index rose 0.9 percent. Pronounced price advances were reported for osnaburg, print cloth, sheeting, shirting, cotton yarns, raw silk, silk hosiery, silk yarns, woolen yarns, burlap, raw jute, and cotton twine. Lower prices for work clothing and overcoats caused the clothing subgroup index to fall 0.6 percent. From July 1937 to July 1938 the cotton goods index declined 25 percent, woolen and worsted goods dropped nearly 20 percent, silk and rayon fell nearly 12 percent, and clothing decreased approximately 9 percent.

The largest group increase during the month, 1.8 percent, was registered by the chemicals and drugs group. Wholesale prices of mixed fertilizers were up 5.2 percent, drugs and pharmaceuticals advanced 4.0 percent, and chemicals rose 1.4 percent. Quotations were higher

for denatured alcohol, copper sulphate, tallow, tartaric acid, grain alcohol, iodine, potassium iodide, ground bone, and tankage. Prices for fertilizer materials declined 3.7 percent because of decreases for ammonia sulphate, and superphosphate. Glycerine prices also were weaker.

Advancing prices for coal, gas, and gasoline were responsible for an increase of 0.5 percent in the fuel and lighting materials group index. Wholesale prices of coke and electric current to large and small commercial users averaged lower.

The index for the metals and metal products group declined 0.9 percent largely because of a decrease of 3.7 percent in iron and steel, principally iron and steel bars, billets, boiler tubes, castings, nails, pig iron, pipe, tank plates, wire rods, steel sheets, skelp, strips, structural steel, fence wire, and wood screws. A minor decrease was also registered in prices of agricultural implements. Nonferrous metals, including electrolytic copper, pig lead, lead pipe, pig zinc, zinc sheets, pig tin, and copper and brass manufactures advanced 6.8 percent, offsetting the loss of the past 4 months. Wholesale prices of plumbing and heating fixtures advanced 3.0 percent as a result of higher prices for heating equipment. No changes were reported in prices of motor vehicles.

Weakening prices for structural steel, Ponderosa pine lumber, door and window frames, gravel, lime, sand, and bone black were responsible for a decline of 0.6 percent in the building materials group index. The brick and tile, lumber, and paint and paint materials subgroups rose fractionally. Prices were higher for common building brick, Douglas fir and gum lumber, red cedar shingles, red lead, litharge, China wood oil, and sewer pipe.

The housefurnishing goods group index declined 0.8 percent because of lower prices for Wilton carpets, oil cloth, and furniture. Brussels carpets, pillow cases, and sheets were higher.

During July wholesale prices of paper and pulp fell 3.2 percent and cattle feed dropped 2.0 percent. Crude rubber advanced 21.3 percent and wholesale prices of automobile tires and tubes were steady.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for June and July 1938 and July 1937 are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	July 1938	June 1938	July 1937
All commodities	**78.8**	**78.3**	**87.9**
Farm products	**69.4**	**68.7**	**89.3**
Grains	58.3	62.7	105.2
Livestock and poultry	84.4	80.2	105.0
Other farm products	63.0	63.0	75.1
Foods	**74.3**	**73.1**	**86.2**
Dairy products	69.5	68.5	76.4
Cereal products	78.8	80.2	92.3
Fruits and vegetables	56.4	61.7	71.2
Meats	89.7	84.5	106.0
Other foods	66.7	64.7	74.6
Hides and leather products	**91.5**	**90.1**	**106.7**
Shoes	101.2	101.8	107.4
Hides and skins	70.8	62.3	116.2
Leather	82.5	81.6	98.7
Other leather products	97.5	97.7	102.7
Textile products	**66.1**	**65.5**	**78.3**
Clothing	81.7	82.2	90.1
Cotton goods	65.1	63.9	86.8
Hosiery and underwear	59.8	59.7	64.8
Silk and rayon	29.9	27.6	33.9
Woolen and worsted goods	75.9	75.6	94.4
Other textile products	65.4	65.0	69.3
Fuel and lighting materials	**76.8**	**76.4**	**78.1**
Anthracite	76.2	74.5	76.6
Bituminous coal	97.9	97.5	98.6
Coke	104.2	105.3	104.9
Electricity	(1)	(1)	80.0
Gas	(1)	90.4	84.0
Petroleum products	56.8	56.3	61.8
Metals and metal products	**95.2**	**96.1**	**96.1**
Agricultural implements	95.9	96.1	94.2
Farm machinery	97.3	97.6	96.1
Metals—Continued.			
Iron and steel	97.2	100.9	99.8
Motor vehicles [2]	96.0	96.0	87.0
Nonferrous metals	71.8	67.2	92.7
Plumbing and heating	79.5	77.2	78.7
Building materials	**89.2**	**89.7**	**96.7**
Brick and tile	90.7	90.6	95.4
Cement	95.5	95.5	95.5
Lumber	88.8	88.7	101.3
Paint and paint materials	80.5	80.1	83.9
Plumbing and heating	79.5	77.2	78.7
Structural steel	107.3	113.0	114.9
Other building materials	91.2	93.3	101.0
Chemicals and drugs	**77.7**	**76.3**	**83.9**
Chemicals	81.7	80.6	89.9
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	74.8	71.9	78.2
Fertilizer materials	66.9	69.5	71.3
Mixed fertilizers	72.9	69.3	74.2
Housefurnishing goods	**86.4**	**87.1**	**89.7**
Furnishings	90.5	90.7	92.6
Furniture	82.2	83.5	86.8
Miscellaneous	**72.7**	**72.9**	**79.0**
Automobile tires and tubes	57.4	57.4	56.4
Cattle feed	76.8	78.4	116.5
Paper and pulp	82.8	85.5	94.2
Rubber, crude	31.9	26.3	39.6
Other miscellaneous	80.7	81.1	85.7
Raw materials	**72.3**	**71.4**	**86.5**
Semimanufactured articles	**74.3**	**74.1**	**87.0**
Finished products	**82.5**	**82.2**	**88.8**
All commodities other than farm products	**80.8**	**80.3**	**87.5**
All commodities other than farm products and foods	**81.4**	**81.3**	**86.3**

[1] Data not available.
[2] Preliminary revision

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to July 1938

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1937, inclusive, and by months from July 1937 to July 1938, inclusive, are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	83.9	89.7	77.8	86.3
By months:											
1937:											
July	89.3	86.2	106.7	78.3	78.1	96.1	96.7	83.9	89.7	79.0	87.9
August	86.4	86.7	108.1	77.1	78.4	97.0	96.3	82.2	91.1	77.3	87.5
September	85.9	88.0	107.6	75.3	78.7	97.1	96.2	81.4	91.1	77.0	87.4
October	80.4	85.5	106.7	73.5	78.5	96.4	95.4	81.2	91.0	76.2	85.4
November	75.7	83.1	101.4	71.2	78.2	96.8	93.7	80.2	90.4	75.4	83.3
December	72.8	79.8	97.7	70.1	78.4	96.3	92.5	79.5	89.7	75.0	81.7
1938:											
January	71.6	76.3	96.7	69.7	78.3	96.6	91.8	79.6	88.3	75.2	80.9
February	69.8	73.5	94.7	68.6	78.5	96.0	91.1	79.1	88.0	74.8	79.8
March	70.3	73.5	93.6	68.2	77.7	96.0	91.5	78.7	87.7	74.4	79.7
April	68.4	72.3	92.1	67.2	76.8	96.3	91.2	77.5	87.3	73.4	78.7
May	67.5	72.1	91.3	66.1	76.2	96.7	90.4	76.8	87.2	73.1	78.1
June	68.7	73.1	90.1	65.5	76.4	96.1	89.7	76.3	87.1	72.9	78.3
July	69.4	74.3	91.5	66.1	76.8	95.2	89.2	77.7	86.4	72.7	78.8

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 5 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Finished products" was given in the December 1937 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

TABLE 5.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1937—Continued.					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	November	77.2	79.8	86.7	84.8	84.3
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	December	75.4	77.7	85.3	83.5	83.6
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	1938:					
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	January	74.9	76.9	84.3	82.8	83.5
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	February	73.6	76.1	83.3	81.9	83.0
1937:						March	73.2	75.6	83.4	81.6	82.6
July	86.5	87.0	88.8	87.5	86.3	April	71.3	75.3	82.7	80.8	82.0
August	84.8	86.6	89.0	87.6	86.1	May	70.7	75.4	82.1	80.3	81.6
September	84.4	85.3	89.1	87.6	85.9	June	71.4	74.1	82.2	80.3	81.3
October	80.7	82.5	88.1	86.4	85.1	July	72.3	74.3	82.5	80.8	81.4

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly variations in the major commodity group classifications during June and July are shown by the index numbers in table 6. The percentage changes from week to week during July are given in table 7.

TABLE 6.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Commodity Groups, June and July 1938*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	July 30, 1938	July 23, 1938	July 16, 1938	July 9, 1938	July 2, 1938	June 25, 1938	June 18, 1938	June 11, 1938	June 4, 1938
All commodities	78.6	78.7	78.9	78.3	77.9	78.2	78.4	77.8	77.7
Farm products	68.6	69.3	70.7	69.4	68.5	68.8	69.7	68.3	67.2
Foods	74.1	74.3	74.4	73.6	72.7	73.2	73.5	72.7	72.3
Hides and leather products	92.5	92.4	92.1	91.5	91.9	91.0	91.1	91.1	91.5
Textile products	65.7	65.8	65.7	65.7	65.3	64.9	64.8	64.9	65.5
Fuel and lighting materials	77.3	77.4	77.4	77.2	77.0	76.8	76.7	76.5	76.5
Metals and metal products	95.4	95.3	95.3	95.3	95.1	96.4	96.5	95.7	95.7
Building materials	89.2	89.3	89.3	88.5	89.5	90.0	89.8	90.1	90.2
Chemicals and drugs	77.0	77.0	77.1	76.8	76.7	76.1	75.8	75.9	75.9
Housefurnishing goods	87.9	87.9	88.0	88.1	88.4	88.4	88.6	88.6	88.6
Miscellaneous	72.5	72.5	72.6	72.5	72.9	72.8	72.7	72.4	72.5
Raw materials	71.7	72.2	72.7	71.9	71.1	71.3	71.6	70.9	70.2
Semimanufactured articles	74.4	74.4	74.3	74.2	73.4	74.3	74.1	72.8	73.0
Finished products	82.8	82.8	82.9	82.3	82.3	82.5	82.6	82.2	82.3
All commodities other than farm products	80.8	80.8	80.7	80.3	80.1	80.3	80.3	79.9	80.0
All commodities other than farm products and foods	81.6	81.6	81.6	81.4	81.5	81.5	81.5	81.2	81.4

TABLE 7.—*Weekly Changes (Percentage) During July 1938, by Groups of Commodities*

Commodity group	Percentage change from—					
	June 25 to July 30	July 23 to July 30	July 16 to July 23	July 9 to July 16	July 2 to July 9	June 25 to July 2
All commodities	+0.5	−0.1	−0.3	+0.8	+0.5	−0.4
Farm products	−.3	−1.0	−2.0	+1.9	+1.3	−.4
Foods	+1.2	−.3	−.1	+1.1	+1.2	−.7
Hides and leather products	+1.6	+.1	+.3	+.7	−.4	+1.0
Textile products	+1.2	−.2	+.2	0	+.6	+.6
Fuel and lighting materials	+.7	−.1	0	+.3	+.3	+.3
Metals and metal products	−1.0	+.1	0	0	+.2	−1.3
Building materials	−.9	−.1	0	+.9	−1.1	−.6
Chemicals and drugs	+1.2	0	−.1	+.4	+.1	+.8
Housefurnishing goods	−.6	0	−.1	−.1	−.3	0
Miscellaneous	−.4	0	−.1	+.1	−.5	+.1
Raw materials	+.6	−.7	−.7	+1.1	+1.1	−.3
Semimanufactured articles	+.1	0	+.1	+.1	+1.1	−1.2
Finished products	+.4	0	−.1	+.7	0	−.2
All commodities other than farm products	+.6	0	+.1	+.5	+.2	−.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods	+.1	0	0	+.2	−.1	0

Purchasing Power of the Dollar at Wholesale

The purchasing power of the dollar, by groups and subgroups of commodities, for July 1938, in comparison with June 1938 and July

1937, is shown in table 8. For this purpose, the Bureau uses reciprocals of the price index numbers. To illustrate, the index number representing the level of all commodities at wholesale in July 1938, with average prices for the year 1926 as the base of 100, is 78.8. The reciprocal of this index number is 1/78.8 or 0.01269, which translated into dollars and cents, becomes $1.269. This represents an increase of 26.9 percent since 1926 in the purchasing power of the dollar in its command over "All commodities" at wholesale.

TABLE 8.—*Purchasing Power of the Wholesale-Price Dollar, by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities*

[1926=$1.000]

Group and subgroup	July 1938	June 1938	July 1937	Group and subgroup	July 1938	June 1938	July 1937
All commodities	$1.269	$1.277	$1.138	**Metals and metal products—Continued.**			
Farm products	1.441	1.456	1.120	Iron and steel	$1.029	$0.991	$1.002
Grains	1.715	1.595	.951	Motor vehicles [2]	1.042	1.042	1.149
Livestock and poultry	1.185	1.247	.952	Nonferrous metals	1.393	1.488	1.079
Other farm products	1.587	1.587	1.332	Plumbing and heating	1.258	1.295	1.271
Foods	1.346	1.368	1.160	**Building materials**	1.121	1.115	1.034
Dairy products	1.439	1.460	1.309	Brick and tile	1.103	1.104	1.048
Cereal products	1.269	1.247	1.083	Cement	1.047	1.047	1.047
Fruits and vegetables	1.773	1.621	1.404	Lumber	1.126	1.127	.987
Meats	1.115	1.183	.943	Paint and paint materials	1.242	1.248	1.192
Other foods	1.499	1.546	1.340	Plumbing and heating	1.258	1.295	1.271
Hides and leather products	1.093	1.110	.937	Structural steel	.932	.885	.870
Shoes	.988	.982	.931	Other building materials	1.096	1.072	.990
Hides and skins	1.412	1.605	.861	**Chemicals and drugs**	1.287	1.311	1.192
Leather	1.212	1.225	1.013	Chemicals	1.224	1.241	1.112
Other leather products	1.026	1.024	.974	Drugs and pharmaceuticals	1.337	1.391	1.279
Textile products	1.513	1.527	1.277	Fertilizer materials	1.495	1.439	1.403
Clothing	1.224	1.217	1.110	Mixed fertilizers	1.372	1.443	1.348
Cotton goods	1.536	1.565	1.152	**Housefurnishing goods**	1.157	1.148	1.115
Hosiery and underwear	1.672	1.675	1.543	Furnishings	1.105	1.103	1.080
Silk and rayon	3.344	3.623	2.950	Furniture	1.217	1.198	1.152
Woolen and worsted goods	1.318	1.323	1.059	**Miscellaneous**	1.376	1.372	1.266
Other textile products	1.529	1.538	1.443	Automobile tires and tubes	1.742	1.742	1.773
Fuel and lighting materials	1.302	1.309	1.280	Cattle feed	1.302	1.276	.858
Anthracite	1.312	1.342	1.305	Paper and pulp	1.208	1.170	1.062
Bituminous coal	1.021	1.026	1.014	Rubber, crude	3.135	3.802	2.525
Coke	.960	.950	.953	Other miscellaneous	1.239	1.233	1.167
Electricity	[1]	[1]	1.250	**Raw materials**	1.383	1.401	1.156
Gas	[1]	1.106	1.190	**Semimanufactured articles**	1.346	1.350	1.149
Petroleum products	1.761	1.776	1.618	**Finished products**	1.212	1.217	1.126
Metals and metal products	1.050	1.041	1.041	**All commodities other than farm products**	1.238	1.245	1.143
Agricultural implements	1.043	1.041	1.062	**All commodities other than farm products and foods**	1.229	1.230	1.159
Farm machinery	1.028	1.025	1.041				

[1] Data not available.
[2] Preliminary revision.

Monthly Average Wholesale Prices and Index Numbers of Individual Commodities

Since July 1935 the table showing prices and index numbers of individual commodities included in the composite index has been issued in mimeographed form and is available upon request. As a permanent record the prices and index numbers of individual com-

modities together with the code numbers are published semiannually in the June and December issues of "Wholesale Prices." The June 1938 issue showed the data for the year 1937 and for the first 6 months of 1938.

Estimated Value in Exchange and Relative Importance of Commodities

A mimeographed statement giving the estimated value in exchange and the relative importance of the individual items included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' weighted index of wholesale commodity prices in the year 1937 and similar data by groups and subgroups of commodities for each year, 1926 through 1937, is available upon request.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

AUGUST 1938

Agriculture

The first session of the Permanent Agricultural Committee [*of the International Labor Office*]. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, June 1938, pp. 697–714.)

Following an account of the background of the committee and a general discussion of the social problems of agriculture, certain specific aspects of agricultural employment conditions were considered, including hours of work, holidays with pay, wage regulation, and child labor.

The agricultural labor situation in the United States. By Lowry Nelson. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, June 1938, pp. 754–763.)

One of the national reports presented at the first session of the Permanent Agricultural Committee of the International Labor Office.

Disadvantaged classes in American agriculture. By Carl C. Taylor, Helen W. Wheeler, and E. L. Kirkpatrick. Washington, U. S. Farm Security Administration and Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1938. 124 pp., maps, chart. (Social Research Report No. VIII.)

Child Labor and Child Care

Changes and trends in child labor and its control. By Homer Folks. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1938. 30 pp., charts. (Publication No. 375.)

A study of child labor in the shrimp industry on the Gulf Coast. By James E. Sidel, Sam B. Barton, and Ruth Barton. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1937. 28 pp.; mimeographed.

Kinderfürsorge jenseits unserer grenzen. By R. Weiland. Weimar, Verlag Hermann Böhlaus Nachfolger, 1937. 116 pp.; bibliography.

The monograph deals with care for children in England, Switzerland, France, and Spain. Legislation, organizations for the regulation of child labor, and administration of maternal and child-welfare agencies, schools, and playgrounds are discussed.

Company Unions

Characteristics of company unions, 1935. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 313 pp. (Bulletin No. 634.)

Cooperative Movement

Credit unions of employees in various industries, 1936. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 5 pp. (Serial No. R. 765, reprint from June 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Fifth annual report of United States Farm Credit Administration, 1937. Washington, 1938. 218 pp., maps, charts.

Gives information on the work of the credit-union and cooperative divisions and on banks for cooperatives.

Refrigerated food lockers—a new cooperative service. By L. B. Mann. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1938. 30 pp., illus. (Circular No. C–107.)

There is a short account of the development of the cooperative provision of cold-storage-locker plants for storing meat and other perishable foods; also information as to formation of an association for this purpose, plant lay-out, financial requirements, cost of service, and advantages and disadvantages to locker users.

Educational methods for promoting cooperation. By Ralph Russell. Washington, Pan American Union, 1938. 20 pp.; mimeographed. (Series on Cooperatives, No. 9.)

Other pamphlets in this series which dealt with matters of interest to consumers' cooperatives were: Cooperative purchasing of farm supplies, by Joseph G. Knapp (Bulletin No. 4); and Cooperative discussion clubs, by Carl R. Hutchinson (Bulletin No. 6).

A selected list of recent books and pamphlets on cooperation in the United States and foreign countries. Compiled by Grace Hadley Fuller. Washington, Library of Congress, December 1937. 50 pp.; mimeographed.

Economic and Social Problems

A study of the economic and social status of six thousand former students of Rochester high schools. Rochester, Civic Committee on Unemployment, 1937. In 3 parts.

Reviewed in this issue.

L'Expérience Roosevelt et le milieu social américain. By Louis R. Franck. Paris, Librairie Félix Alcan, 1937. 386 pp.

Discusses the economic situation when President Roosevelt came into office and the legislative action taken with the aim of improving social and working conditions. Particular attention is given to operations under the National Industrial Recovery Act, to relief administration, and to the position taken by the Supreme Court with reference to various laws enacted by Congress as recovery measures.

Le contrôle ouvrier en France. By Gérard Dehove. Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, 1937. 422 pp.; bibliography.

Deals with the domain and nature of labor control, the history of the growth of the idea, and labor and employer attitudes towards the question since 1914.

The problem of the distressed areas [Great Britain]. By Wal Hannington. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1937. 286 pp.

Mexico's resources for livelihood. By Alejandro Carrillo. The Hague and New York, International Industrial Relations Institute, 1938. 34 pp.

An examination of the present opportunities and standard of living of workers in agriculture, mining, oil, transportation, manufacturing, commerce, and other fields of economic activity in Mexico.

Employment and Unemployment

Final report on total and partial unemployment—United States summary, with data for geographic divisions, cities, and States. Washington, U. S. Census of Partial Employment, Unemployment, and Occupations, 1938. xiv, 135 pp.

Final report on total and partial unemployment for geographic divisions, including data for registrants in each industry group, by occupational group—supplement to the United States summary. Washington, U. S. Census of Partial Employment, Unemployment, and Occupations, 1938. 89 pp.

Monthly statistics of employment, wages, and hours, issued currently by State labor departments [a bibliography]. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Library, August 1, 1938. 6 pp.; mimeographed.

Survey of employment-service information: Analysis of characteristics of more than 4,000,000 applicants in active file inventory, November 1937, and of placements during period from April 1, 1937, to February 1, 1938. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1938. 142 pp., charts.

The five principal sections of this report are headed, respectively: Who are "the unemployed"?; The active file and the Unemployment Census; The significance of employment service data; Industrial, occupational, and racial characteristics of registrants; and Ages of registrants and workers placed.

Final report of the National Employment Commission [of Canada], January 26, 1938. Ottawa, 1938. 110 pp.

Discusses the background and present status of employment in the Dominion; the impact of the depression on Canada; the broad policy to stimulate recovery; joint versus functional division of responsibilities for unemployment distress; unemployment insurance, unemployment and occupational aid; coordination of public with voluntary aid; employment factors in production and distribution; rehabilitation and training measures; and the implementation of the Commission's recommendations.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

National Health Conference, Washington, D. C., July 18–20, 1938, called by Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. Washington, Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, 1938. 75 pp.; mimeographed.

Reviewed in this issue.

Group hospitalization—a report of experiences. Chicago, American Medical Association, Bureau of Medical Economics, 1937. 296 pp.

The study covers 172 plans, of which 90 are active. Seventy-two of them are noncommercial. The principal features of the plans are analyzed and discussed, and "in the interests of fairness, efficiency, and greater security, and in the event that hospital insurance is deemed necessary," ten governing principles are presented, which have been adopted by the House of Delegates of the American Medical Association.

Group purchase of medical care by industrial employees. By Leahmae Brown. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1938. 53 pp.; bibliography.

Analyzes a limited number of plans which were selected as representative of the best forms of existing medical-service plans among industrial employees.

Lead poisoning in industry and its prevention. By May R. Mayers, M. D., and Minnie M. McMahon. Albany, N. Y., Department of Labor, 1938. 70 pp., illus. (Special Bulletin No. 195.)

Deals with sources of lead poisoning in industry, physiology and diagnosis of lead absorption and lead poisoning, and preventive measures. A section on compensation cites the law and its application to lead injuries, explains terminology, and describes essential tests to be made in examination of cases.

Medical and legal aspects of tuberculosis as an occupational disease and as an accidental injury. By Mary Graham Mack. New York, National Tuberculosis Association, 1938. 188 pp. (Social Research Series No. 6.)

The environment and its effect upon man. Symposium held at Harvard School of Public Health, August 24–29, 1936, as part of Harvard University tercentary celebration. Boston, Harvard School of Public Health, 1937. 297 pp., diagrams, illus.

The symposium included reports on the effects of social environment; industrial fatigue; abnormal air conditions in industry; the physiological effects of high pressures; carbon-monoxide poisoning; toxic organic vapors and gases; the causation of pneumoconiosis and its clinical aspects, diagnosis, and treatment.

Household Employment

Household employment problems—a handbook for round-table discussions among household employers; Home economics education. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, 1937. 58 pp., chart; bibliography.

Information on various phases of employer-employee relations, and on standards of work, in household employment. Data on number, age, race, hours of work, and wages of household workers are included.

The women in the house: Stories of household employment. Edited by Ruth Sergel. New York, Woman's Press, 1938. 149 pp.
A case book on household-employment relationships—a virgin field of sociology.

Housing

Housing yearbook, 1938. Edited by Coleman Woodbury. Chicago, National Association of Housing Officials, 1938. 315 pp.
Review of public and private housing activities during the year with separate chapters on problems and practices of current interest in the United States and in Canada, Germany, and Great Britain. A directory of housing agencies is furnished.

Europe rehoused. By Elizabeth Denby. London, Geo. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1938. 284 pp., illus.
An account of housing progress in Sweden, Holland, Germany, Vienna, Italy, and France, and a comparison between the degree to which these countries have benefited from expenditures made and the results of outlays in Great Britain.

XIX Memoria de la Comision Nacional de Casas Baratas, Ley 9677, 1936–1937. Buenos Aires, Comision Nacional de Casas Baratas, 1937. 53 pp.
Annual report of the Argentine National Commission for Economical Housing, for period closing with the first quarter of 1937.

Selected references on ready-cut houses, house plans, farm buildings, log cabins, wayside stands, summer camps, and cottages. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, January 1938. 10 pp.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Coal-mine accidents in the United States, 1935. By W. W. Adams, L. E. Geyer, and M. G. Parry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1938. 110 pp. (Bulletin 409.)
Reports received from all commercially operated mines that were active during all or any part of the calendar year 1935 showed that 1,242 of the 565,202 workers employed were killed and 65,575 were injured. As a result, the injury-frequency rate per million man-hours worked for the year was 91.20, as compared with 89.98 for 1934. In addition to the detailed and summary tables showing the accident experience of the industry, there is a directory of State mine inspectors and other State labor officials connected with coal mining.

Summary and analysis of accidents on steam railways in United States subject to Interstate Commerce Act, calendar year 1936. Washington, U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission, Bureau of Statistics, 1937. 101 pp., charts. (Accident Bulletin No. 105.)
Train accidents in 1936 were responsible for 277 deaths and 1,547 nonfatal injuries, train-service accidents for 4,897 deaths and 18,045 nonfatal injuries, and nontrain accidents for 224 deaths and 15,114 nonfatal injuries, a total of 5,398 deaths and 34,706 nonfatal injuries. Of these, 547 deaths and 8,846 injuries were sustained by employees on duty. The tabulation for employee injuries is, for the first time, based on injuries causing disability of 1 day or more, instead of on the previous basis of 3 or more days.

Cost of industrial accidents in Illinois for year 1937. Chicago, Illinois Department of Labor, 1938. 84 pp., charts; mimeographed.
During 1937, reports were received of 538 fatal and 41,886 compensable nonfatal accidents—an increase of 9.8 percent over the number reported in 1936. According to the employment index of the department, the average number of workers increased only 8.5 percent.
The total direct costs plus the estimated indirect costs of industrial accidents for the year amounted to approximately $42,500,000. The direct costs (compensation payments) of the 42,069 cases closed during the year totaled $8,216,475, exclusive of hospital and medical care, artificial limbs, and funeral costs. Additional compensation payments of $300,243 were awarded in 990 reopened earlier cases. Average compensation paid per accident for all closed cases was $195.

Kansas accidental deaths, 1937. Topeka, State Board of Health, 1938. 15 pp., chart.

Accidents caused 8.2 percent of the total deaths in the State of Kansas during 1937, and 15 percent of the accidental deaths were the result of occupational accidents. The death rate for the latter was 33 per 100,000 employed. Out of the 229 deaths listed as occupational, 83 were due to agricultural accidents. Some of the 447 deaths attributed to motor vehicles should probably be added to the 229 listed as occupational, as there were 75 commercial trucks, 7 gasoline transport trucks, 5 commercial buses, and 2 taxis involved in the 405 motor-vehicle accidents.

Annual report of Commission of Labor and Industry (Workmen's Compensation Department) of Kansas, for fiscal year ending June 30, 1937. Topeka, 1938. 48 pp., charts, posters.

Industrial injuries reported during the year numbered 9,889 as against 7,597 reported in 1935–36. Compensation paid in cases closed by final release during the year amounted to $572,851.73, and medical cost (together with funeral benefits in fatal cases), to $205,679.60.

Twenty-third annual report of Maryland State Industrial Accident Commission, for year November 1, 1936, to October 31, 1937. Baltimore, [1938?]. 48 pp.

Reports were received during the year, from 14,833 employers, of 38,243 industrial accidents, an increase of 7,548 over the previous year, Claims were filed in 138 fatal and 12,445 nonfatal cases, a total of 12,583. Compensation and medical awards totaled $2,032,521.27, excluding awards for temporary total disability continued after the period of the report. Statistical tables show classifications of injuries by industry, source of injury, nature and location of injury, and occupation, wage, age, and sex of the injured workers. Annual reports are included for the safety department and the State accident fund.

Biennial report of Industrial Commission of Virginia, reviewing administration of Workmen's Compensation Act, 1935–1936. Richmond, 1937. 21 pp.

During the first year of the biennium, 39,357 accident reports were filed with the commission, and during the second year, 44,959. Compensation cost incurred, including estimated medical expense for all cases, amounted to $1,572,998 for 7,253 compensable cases in 1935, and to $1,798,734 for 8,700 compensable cases in 1936. Tables show distribution of compensation cases by industry, cause, county, and principal city; and by wage and age of worker. Injury-frequency rates are given for manufacturing industries, coal mining, quarries, and laundries.

Report for 1937 of Workmen's Compensation Board of Nova Scotia. Halifax, 1938. 37 pp.

The total number of accidents reported in 1937 was 12,404, as compared with 10,881 reported in 1936. Sixty accidents resulted in death, 218 in permanent partial disability, and 8,210 in disability for 7 days or over; 2,440 cases involved only medical aid, 902 were decided noncompensable, and 574 at the end of the year were still pending adjustment. The estimated cost of all accidents, aside from payments to Dominion and Provincial employees, administrative expense, and cost of safety associations, was $1,623,077.

Rapport annuel et comptes de la Caisse Nationale Suisse d'Assurance en Cas d'Accidents pour l'exercice 1937. Berne, 1938. 63 pp., charts, illus.

This annual report of the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund includes, in addition to statistics, information on accident-prevention work and on the industrial medical service which was started in 1937.

Labor and Social Legislation

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, July 1938, pp. 1–5; also reprinted.) Series of questions and answers on the Act.

The Wagner Act and the automobile worker. By Joel Seidman. Detroit, United Automobile Workers of America, 1937. 16 pp.

Proceedings of Southern Regional Conference on Labor Legislation, New Orleans, La., February 14–16, 1938. Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1938. 63 pp. (Bulletin No. 22.)

Inspection manual. Suggested procedure for enforcement of safety and health, hours, minimum wage, child labor, industrial home work, wage payment, and wage collection laws. Washington, U. S. Division of Labor Standards, 1938. 169 pp., loose-leaf.

La previsión social en el Brasil. By Julio Bustos A. (In Previsión Social, Departamento de Previsión Social, Santiago, Chile, March-April 1938, pp. 501–525.)
Outlines the social-welfare legislation of Brazil and gives an account of the organization, administration, and benefits of the various systems of retirement and pensions and accident compensation, with statistics of operation into or through 1936.

Legislative trends in Colombia. By Richard C. Backus. (In Tulane Law Review, New Orleans, La., June 1938, pp. 534–551; also reprinted.)
A summary of social and labor laws now in force in Colombia is included.

Der arbeitsschutz und seine durchführung. By Willy Matthes. Berlin, W. Kohlhammer, 1937. 296 pp.
Deals with legislation for labor protection in Germany.

Labor Offices

Labor offices in the United States and in Canada. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 38 pp. (Bulletin No. 632.)

Labor Organization and Activities

Fifty years of the machinists union. By A. O. Wharton. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, May 1938, pp. 1–4; also reprinted.)

Labor problems and sketch of American labor movement. By Joel Seidman. Detroit, United Automobile Workers of America, 1937. 24 pp.

Report of Registrar of Friendly Societies, Irish Free State, for year ended December 31, 1937. Dublin, [1938]. 43 pp.
Includes trade-union statistics for the years 1931 to 1936.

Trade unions: Report of Industrial Registrar, New South Wales, for 12 months ended December 31, 1936. Sydney, 1938. 7 pp.
Shows number and membership of unions of employees and membership of unions of employers.

Migration

The organization of migration for settlement. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, May 1938, pp. 561–583.)
This article tells the story of the important conference of experts, convened by the International Labor Office, which was in session at Geneva February 28 to March 7, 1938, to examine the practical impediments to the settlement of immigrants, especially in the Latin American countries, and to recommend means to revive this form of intercontinental migration.

Report of Oversea Settlement Board [Great Britain], May 1938. London, 1938. 42 pp., charts. (Cmd. 5766.)
A study of migration, population, and economic trends, and recommendations for handling problems of migration.

Occupations

Job descriptions for job machine shops. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, Division of Standards and Research, 1938. 1v, 196 pp., illus.
One of a series of volumes being issued by the United States Employment Service describing jobs in various occupational fields.

Occupational status of Negro college graduates in Georgia, 1937. By Walter R. Chivers. Atlanta, National Youth Administration of Georgia, 1938. 10 pp.; mimeographed. (Bulletin No. 6.)
A factual study undertaken with the hope of focusing the attention of State school administrators upon the advantages of establishing vocational-guidance services in their institutions for Negro youth.

Old-Age Care and Pensions

Homes for the aged in Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, Department of Welfare, 1937. 40 pp. (Bulletin No. 68.)

Gives for each home the entrance requirements, classes of applicants accepted, and capacity of home.

The extent of dependency upon old-age assistance in South Dakota. By John P. Johansen. Brookings, South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Agricultural Experiment Station (in cooperation with South Dakota Works Progress Administration), 1938. 47 pp., maps, charts. (Bulletin No. 318.)

Detailed analysis of recipients of old-age assistance in South Dakota, as to sex, marital condition, nativity, and length of residence in State, and a summary of facts pointing toward an increase in South Dakota in the extent of old-age dependency.

Almshouse policies and almshouse care of indigent in Tennessee. By William E. Cole. Knoxville, University of Tennessee, 1938. 76 pp., map. (University of Tennessee Record, Extension Series, Vol. XIV, No. 2.)

Reviewed in this issue.

Old-age insurance for agricultural workers in western Europe. By Thomas C. Blaisdell, Jr. (In Social Security Bulletin, U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, June 1938, pp. 19–23.)

Prices

The making and using of index numbers. By Wesley C. Mitchell. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 114 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 656, reprint of Part I of Bulletin No. 284.)

Research in agricultural index numbers—scope and method. By John D. Black and Bruce D. Mudgett. New York, Social Science Research Council, 1938. 152 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 10.)

Discussion of the general theory of index numbers with particular reference to agriculture and with summaries of researches and of the views of specialists relating to the subject.

Materialien zur geschichte der preise und löhne in Österreich. Vienna, Carl Ueberreuters Verlag, 1938. xxxviii, 879 pp. (Veroffentlichungen des Internationalen wissenschaftlichen Komitees für die Geschichte der Preise und Löhne—Österreich, Band I.)

History of price and wage movements in Austria up to 1937.

An analysis of price behavior during the period 1855–1913. By Jørgen Pedersen and O. Strange Petersen. Copenhagen, Levin & Munksgaard; London, Oxford University Press, 1938. 268 pp., charts.

The results of a study of movements of prices in Denmark, and of the effects thereon of wages and rates of interest. Data as to similar movements in other countries are also considered. Wages are viewed as belonging to the group of inflexible prices, for the authors believe that "wages have an inherent tendency to remain unchanged" and that "this tendency is stronger in the downward direction than in the upward."

Recreation and Leisure-Time Utilization

State enabling legislation for local recreation. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Recreation Division, 1937. Various paging; mimeographed. (Recreation Circular No. 3.)

The training of W. P. A. workers in the field of recreation. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Recreation Division, 1937. Various paging; mimeographed. (Recreation Circular No. 1.)

Recreation—a selected bibliography with annotations. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, Recreation Division, 1937. 16 pp.; mimeographed. (Recreation Circular No. 2.)

The problem of leisure. By Henry Durant. London, George Routledge & Sons, Ltd., 1938. 276 pp.; bibliography.

The author discusses the question of leisure in the machine age, leisure-time activities among different social groups, the "machinery of amusement," organizations for leisure, and possible future trends in the use of leisure.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Seven years of unemployment relief in New Jersey, 1930–1936. By Douglas H. MacNeil. Washington, Social Science Research Council, Committee on Social Security, 1938. 307 pp.

While the investigator recognized that the experience of any one State would not be wholly typical of that of any other State, it was believed that a detailed account of unemployment relief in New Jersey would indicate the variety and complexity of the problems confronting other State administrations.

The Works Progress Administration in New York City. By John D. Millett. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1938. 228 pp., charts. (Social Science Research Council, Committee on Public Administration, Studies in Administration, Vol. II.)

Report of Dominion [Canada] Commissioner of Unemployment Relief, March 31, 1938. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1938. 40 pp.

Covers administration of the Unemployment and Agricultural Assistance Act, 1937, under which the Dominion by a monthly grant-in-aid assists the Provinces in relief of necessitous persons. In addition, Dominion contributions have been made toward certain works projects, for youth training, for aid in drought areas, and for reestablishment of settlers and relief settlement.

Rubber Industry

The rubber industry in Ohio. By Mary J. Drucker. [Columbus?], National Youth Administration in Ohio, 1937. 76 pp., illus.; bibliography. (Occupational Study No. 1.)

Describes the manufacture of tires and other rubber products, working conditions in rubber factories, advantages and disadvantages of the rubber worker's job, and qualifications and training for the work.

Sickness Insurance

Krankenversicherung: Ausführliche erläuterungen zum zweiten buch der reichsversicherungsordnung. By Bruno Kühne. Berlin, Verlag Langewort, 1938. 568 pp.

Report on sickness insurance in Germany, including information on organization of the system, pertinent legislation, contributions, benefits, medical aid and institutional treatment, unemployment, and prevention of diseases and accidents.

Sickness insurance. Bombay, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1938. 20 pp. (Social Science Intelligence Series, No. 3.)

The economic condition of workers in India is briefly reviewed, and it is concluded that although the country is not ready for the establishment of sickness insurance, the best method to adopt as a preliminary step would be the combining of sick leave with holidays with pay.

Sickness insurance in Norway. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 761, reprint from May 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Die krankenversicherung nach dem bundesgesetz über die kranken- und unfallversicherung, vom 13.June 1911, ihre entstehung und ihre auswirkung. By Hans Hünerwadel. Bern, Switzerland, Hans Huber, [1938?]. 230 pp.; bibliography.

Historical review of operation of the sickness-insurance system in Switzerland, based on a law enacted June 13, 1911, including information on contributions, benefits, disease prevention, and medical and institutional treatment.

Social Security (General)

Social security and the workers in the United States. By Robert J. Watt. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, June 1938, pp. 715–728.)

Survey, from the workers' point of view, of the results so far achieved in the application of the Social Security Act.

The Social Security Act and social security in Ohio. Columbus, Unemployment Compensation Commission, Employment Service Division, 1938. 30 pp.; mimeographed.

Analysis of the Federal Social Security Act, with illustrative statistics to show how it has worked out thus far in Ohio.

Compte rendu des opérations et de la situation de la Caisse Générale d'Épargne et de Retraite, 1937. Bruxelles, Belgium, Caisse Générale d'Épargne et de Retraite, 1938. 114 pp., charts.

Report for 1937 of the Belgian General Savings and Retirement Fund. Approximately 4,566,000 persons were affiliated with the retirement fund in 1937, and payments during the year amounted to 357,300,000 francs.

Dictámenes sobre aplicación y concesión de beneficios de la ley 4054 (seguro obligatorio de enfermedad, invalidez y vejez). By Fernando Errazuriz Lastarria and Eduardo Phillips Muller. Santiago de Chile, Caja de Seguro Obligatorio, 1937. 72 pp.

Compilation of Chilean court decisions relating to coverage and granting of benefits under the compulsory sickness, invalidity, and old-age insurance system of Chile, classified by subjects. Orders of the Welfare Council and the Compulsory Insurance Fund Council, and amendments made up to August 21, 1937, in the law establishing this insurance system, are also included.

Bericht der Reichsversicherungsanstalt für Angestellte für das geschäftsjahr 1937. Berlin, [1938]. 47 pp.

Annual report of the State insurance system for salaried employees in Germany.

Grundriss der angestelltenversicherung. By Erwin Gaber and Alfred Post. Berlin, Verlag Langewort, 1937. 128 pp.

Deals with social insurance for salaried employees in Germany, with information on legislation, coverage, contributions, and benefits, and a discussion of the importance of this insurance in German economy.

Cartilla de divulgación del seguro social obligatorio, leyes 8433 y 8509. Lima, Peru, Caja Nacional de Seguro Social, 1937. 27 pp., illus.

Bulletin of information concerning the compulsory insurance system of Peru which provides benefits in cases of sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death.

Primera memoria de la Caja Nacional de Seguro Social correspondiente al ejercicio vencido el 31 de Diciembre de 1937, leyes Nos. 8433–8509. Lima, Peru, Caja Nacional de Seguro Social, [1938]. Various paging, charts.

The first report of the National Social Insurance Fund of Peru, covering period ending December 31, 1937. Data concerning administration and statistics of operation are presented.

Technological Changes

Changes in technology and labor requirements in crop production: Corn. By Loring K. Macy, Lloyd E. Arnold, and Eugene G. McKibben. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, 1938. xviii, 181 pp., maps, charts, illus. (National Research Project, Studies of Changing Techniques and Employment in Agriculture, Report No. A–5.)

Reviewed in this issue.

The labor force of the Philadelphia radio industry in 1936. By Gladys L. Palmer and Ada M. Stoflet. Washington, U. S. Works Progress Administration, 1938. xiv, 102 pp., charts, illus. (National Research Project, Philadelphia Labor Market Studies, Report No. P–2.)

The study analyzes the labor supply of a relatively new and expanding industry in a community characterized by a large and varied labor reserve. The outstanding fact revealed by the study is described in the foreword as the difficulty experienced by older workers displaced from other industries in gaining a foothold in the new industry. The firms that developed the radio industry had previously made other products, but only one-eighth of the radio labor force in 1936, as indicated by the sample studied, had been employed by these plants before the making of radios, and these were concentrated in the skilled occupations. Even the skilled workers employed in the industry were predominantly younger workers.

Unemployment Insurance and Relief

Indberetning til Socialministeriet om arbejdsanvisningen og arbejdsløshedsforsikringen, 1936–37. Copenhagen, Arbejdsdirektøren, 1938. 93 pp.
Annual report on unemployment insurance and work of employment offices in Denmark from April 1, 1936, to March 31, 1937, with statistics of unemployment and number of jobs filled.

Unemployment insurance and assistance in Britain. By Percy Cohen. London, George G. Harrap & Co., Ltd., 1938. 272 pp.
The author has given the history, development, and actual conditions of unemployment insurance and unemployment assistance. The aim was to present a complete survey of the subject, avoiding technicalities as far as possible.

Jaarverslag van den Rikjsdienst der Werkloosheidsverzekering en Arbeidsbemiddeling over 1937. The Hague, 1938. 72 pp., charts.
Annual report on unemployment insurance and employment service in the Netherlands in 1937.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Union scales of wages and hours in building trades in 70 cities, May 15, 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 69 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 657.)
An appendix in the bulletin gives changes in rates that came to the attention of the Bureau of Labor Statistics after the collection of the data for May 15, 1937.

Earnings and hours in explosives industry, October 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 756, reprint from August 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Salaries in medical social work in 1937. By Ralph G. Hurlin. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1938. 34 pp.
Data from this report are published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Hourly earnings in radio manufactures, August 1937. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1938. 15 pp. (Serial No. R. 769, reprint from August 1938 Monthly Labor Review.)

Comparison of wages and hours of employees in 54 identical firms in manufacturing of wearing apparel and allied industries in Rhode Island before and after mandatory wage order, also preliminary summary of results of laundry and dry cleansing wage order. Providence, Department of Labor, June 1938. 12 pp., charts; mimeographed.
Data from this report are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review in the section on minimum wages and maximum hours.

Per capita earnings and buying power of employed nonagricultural workers. Washington, U. S. Agricultural Adjustment Administration, 1937. 12 pp., charts.
The earnings reported are for the years 1929 to 1937. As in preceding reports presenting similar data, comparisons are made between average earnings and living costs in regard to both food and nonfood items of the average budget of the industrial worker.

Wages, hours, and employment in United States, July 1936–December 1937. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1938. 31 pp. (Supplement to Conference Board Service Letter, June 1938.)

Time rates of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts, 1937. Boston, Department of Labor and Industries, [1938]. 90 pp. (Labor Bulletin No. 177.)

Some statistics of wages and hours of work [Irish Republic] in 1937, with comparative figures for certain previous years. Dublin, Department of Industry and Commerce, 1938. 46 pp.
Statistics are given by industry, occupation, and geographic area.

Wage rates in the United Kingdom, 1934–37. By E. C. Ramsbottom. (In Journal of Royal Statistical Society, Vol. 101, Part 1, London, 1938, pp. 202–204.)
Shows the movement of wages by industries for the years 1934–37, inclusive, in index numbers based on wages in 1924 as 100.

Youth Problems

N. Y. A. work-project program in Kentucky, 1936–37. Louisville, N. Y. A. Administration for Kentucky, 1937. 73 pp., charts.

Prepared by the National Youth Administration of the State in order that it might better understand the needs of approximately 140,000 jobless young people in Kentucky and as a result be able to formulate a program to meet the problem.

Coming of age in Essex County [New Jersey]: An analysis of 10,000 interviews with persons 16–24 years of age. Newark, Office of Essex County Superintendent of Schools and University of Newark Research Center, [1938?]. 122 pp.

Three youth groups—the unemployed, the employed, and students in school—are dealt with separately throughout the greater part of the report. Over 70 percent of those between 16 and 18 years of age who had left school were in quest of jobs and had not been able to find them up to the time the survey was made. Even when young people have jobs, the vocational-guidance problem is not solved, as great occupational shifts were found to occur in the 16 to 24 age group.

Deutschlands jugend in bevölkerung und wirtschaft. By Hertha Siemering. Berlin, Junker und Dünnhaupt Verlag, 1937. 446 pp.

Deals with young people as a factor in the population and national economy of Germany. The subjects dealt with include health protection, education, training for industrial pursuits, unemployment and measures for combating it, occupational guidance, and distribution of young people among industries.

German labor service. By Fritz Edel. Berlin, Terramare Office, 1938. 32 pp., illus. (Terramare Publications, No. 6.) (In English.)

Describes the work and objectives of the labor service for young workers in Germany.

Youth in the world of today. By Maxwell S. Stewart. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1938. 39 pp. (Public Affairs Pamphlets, No. 22.)

Summary in popular form of present youth problems, based largely on recently completed reports of the American Youth Commission.

Community planning for youth. By Theodore Lee Reller. Philadelphia, Public Education and Child Labor Association of Pennsylvania, 1938. 109 pp.

Prepared with a view to stimulating thought, suggesting where responsibility may be fixed for youth after they have left school, and indicating a more intelligent and effective approach to community problems in connection with the sucessful adjustment of young people.

General Reports

Labor's progress and some basic labor problems. By Harry A. Millis and Royal E. Montgomery. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. xvi, 584 pp. (Economics of Labor, Vol. I.)

The subjects treated in this volume (the first in a series of three volumes) are the trend of real earnings since 1820; the workers' share of national income; wage theories; a general analysis of the distribution of income and wealth; governmental regulation of wages, with emphasis on constitutional questions; women and children in industry; and hours of work. For most of the subjects, the authors give the historical background but emphasize recent developments. The volume is primarily analytical and expository rather than historical. The statistical portions borrow extensively from such sources as the works of Professors Douglas, Wolman, and Hansen and the publications of the Brookings Institution and the National Industrial Conference Board.

Economic fluctuations in Canada during the post-war period. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1938. xxxviii, 116 pp., charts. (Supplement to Monthly Review of Business Statistics.)

Building permits, cost of living, wholesale prices, employment, employment-office operations, and strikes and lock-outs are among the topics covered.

Anuario estadístico de Chile, año 1936: Vol. VI, Finanzas, bancos, y cajas sociales. Santiago de Chile, Dirección General de Estadística, 1938. 143 pp., charts.

The sections of interest to labor contain a financial account of government-administered social insurance for salaried and wage-earning employees; pay-roll totals by month, industry, and district; operation of the labor exchange; and index numbers of purchasing power of day wages.

Politique sociale en Tchécoslovaquie. Prague, l'Institut Social de la République Tchécoslovaque, 1937. 84 pp. Publikace No. 70. (In French.)

This report on social policies in Czechoslovakia covers labor conditions, employment service, assistance to the unemployed, protection of youth, social insurance, housing, and protection of consumers.

Beretning om arbejds- og fabriktilsynets virksomhed i aaret 1937. Copenhagen, Direktoratet for Arbejds- og Fabriktilsynet, 1938. 174 pp., diagrams, illus. (In Danish, with French résumé.)

Annual report on activities of the factory inspectorate of Denmark, dealing separately with factories, elevators, boilers, and bakeries. Includes results of a special investigation of industrial health. and an analysis of 775 accidents in factories and workshops and 227 accidents in agricultural work.

Statistics of factories subject to Factories Act [India], 1934, for year ending December 31, 1936, together with note on working of Factories Act during the year. Delhi, Department of Industries and Labor, 1938. 37 pp.

Contains data on number of factories, number of operatives (with separate figures for women and children), working hours, wages, accidents, safety, housing, health and sanitation, welfare work, and inspection.

Report of Cawnpore Labor Inquiry Committee, appointed by Government of United Provinces, India. Allahabad, 1938. 141 pp.

Among the subjects treated are wages, rationalization, work shifts, labor recruitment, leave, general working conditions, labor organization, housing, and welfare work.

Jaarverslag der Centrale Commissie voor de Statistiek over het jaar 1937. Hague, 1938. 33 pp.

Report of the Central Statistical Commission of the Netherlands for 1937, including a description of its methods of conducting censuses of population and industries and collecting wage, hour, unemployment, and other industrial statistics.

Eighteenth report of Ontario Department of Labor, including seventeenth report of Minimum Wage Board, 1937. Toronto, 1938. 92 pp.

Reviews the industrial situation and labor legislation in the Province for the year and also activities of the Ontario Government employment office, private employment agencies, factory-inspection branch, apprenticeship board, and other agencies.

Statistisk årbok for Oslo, 1937. Oslo, Statistiske Kontor, 1938. 140 pp.

Statistical information in regard to prices, wages, cost of living, public-welfare work, employment, employment service, and unemployment, are included in this 1937 yearbook of the city of Oslo, Norway. Printed in Norwegian, with French translations of table of contents, titles, and table heads.

The puzzle of Palestine. By David H. Popper. New York, Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 1938. 111 pp., maps, charts. (Headline Books, No. 14.)

Contains some data on immigration, cooperatives, and labor.

Statistical year book, Quebec, 1937. Quebec, Department of Municipal Affairs, Trade, and Commerce, 1938. 480 pp.

Synthesis of official information concerning the administration and population of the Province and its industrial, economic, and social activities. Among the subjects covered are employment and wages in certain industries, unemployment, prices, strikes and lock-outs, labor inspection, employment bureaus, industrial accidents, and cooperative banks.

Problems of industry in the East, with special reference to India, French India, Ceylon, Malaya, and the Netherlands Indies. By Harold Butler. Geneva, International Labor Office (American Branch, 734 Jackson Place, NW., Washington, D. C.), 1938. 74 pp. (Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 29.)

Personal impressions of the author concerning social and economic conditions, gathered in a 3 months' journey in the winter of 1937–38.

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